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28 Sept. 1900 - 28 Feb. 1901.

THE CHAUTAUQUAN

A MAGAZINE FOR
SELF-EDUCATION

Issued Monthly with Illustrations

OCTOBER, 1900—MARCH, 1901

VOLUME XXXII



THE CHAUTAUQUA ASSEMBLY

CLEVELAND, OHIO

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1900-1901

P 138.2

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OCTOBER

PRICE 20 CENTS

1900

The CHAUTAUQUAN

*A Magazine for
Self-education*

THE RIVALRY OF
NATIONS: WORLD
POLITICS OF TODAY

MAIDS AND MATRONS
OF NEW FRANCE

CRITICAL STUDIES IN
FRENCH LITERATURE

A READING JOURNEY
IN THE ORIENT

CURRENT EVENTS
PROGRAMS

CLEVELAND • OHIO

Pears' Soap



The Piper's Charm

The Piper promised a joyous land,
Joining the town and just at hand
Where waters gushed and fruit trees grew,
And flowers put forth a fairer hue;
And this was the crown of the children's hope
To bathe in the fountains and use Pears' Soap.
(With apologies to Browning)



MARIE ANTOINETTE GOING TO HER EXECUTION.

From the painting by F. Flameng.

See also pages 22 and 23.

THE CHAUTAUQUAN,

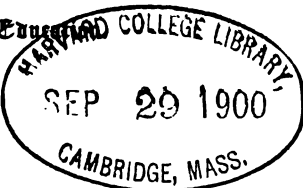
A Monthly Magazine for Self-Education

VOL. XXXII.

OCTOBER, 1900.

SEP 29 1900

No. 1.



Highway & Byways



WHAT next in China? is the question causing great anxiety and perplexity to the concert of the powers, and especially to the United States. The chief object of the expedition to Peking having been accomplished, and with less loss and difficulty than had been feared, what should be the next move of the allies? Even the most rabid advocates of reprisals and exemplary punishment of the Chinese officials implicated in the atrocities of the Boxers and imperial troops, no longer seriously expect their suggestions to form part of the policy of the allies. It is generally understood that no dynastic changes will be forced on China; that Peking will be preserved, and that the empress-dowager and youthful emperor will be permitted to reassume the government of the empire. In fact, they are now exercising sovereign power, though at a safe distance from the capital. While they are held to be responsible for the action of the army, if not for the outrages of the Boxers, it is felt that to punish them would mean to excite the Chinese to hostilities and perhaps plunge China into anarchy.

It is therefore regarded as necessary to restore the *status quo ante bellum* and reestablish the imperial government. But the question has arisen as to how this is to be done. Should Peking be evacuated by the foreign forces, and should the diplomatic representatives follow the soldiers to Taku or some other base? Li Hung Chang, chief commissioner of peace, has been urging this course, and the imperial authorities may decline to return to the capital until the foreign troops retire. Of course, after evacuation there would be an international conference at Peking to elaborate the terms of peace and fix upon indemnity for the injuries suffered by the powers. The Chinese government would also be asked to give

guaranties of future good behavior, and bind itself to respect all treaty rights and to accord due protection to foreigners.

The Russian government rather startled the allies by proposing immediate withdrawal from Peking. It is suspected of ulterior designs and selfish ambitions, in spite of its emphatic professions of disinterestedness and desire for peace on the basis of China's territorial integrity and the open door. The government of the United States is not in complete accord with Russia, and believes that the allied army should remain in Peking until a stable government has been restored and the needful guaranties have been obtained from it. But it has informed Russia and the other powers that, if the concert fails to preserve unity of policy and action, it will order its troops out of the Chinese capital. Germany is opposed to unconditional and immediate evacuation, and about the position of Great Britain there is some uncertainty. At this writing the question is unsettled.

Meantime the Chinese government, safe from reprisals, is becoming aggressive and defiant. If it absolutely refuses to treat with the powers unless they retire from Peking, they will be placed in an awkward predicament. No purpose is served by their occupation, and war upon China is out of the question. The chances of discord in the concert are increasing, and in their own interest definite relations with China and her sovereign rulers must be reestablished.



Our government has asked societies having work in China for statements of their financial losses, but none of them has as yet been able to furnish the data because definite information is not yet to hand. The value of property in North China held by the Missionary Society of the Methodist Church

was about \$170,000, that of Congregationalists \$200,000, Presbyterians \$240,000, the London Missionary Society \$210,000 and the Church (of England) Missionary Society \$380,000. The Presbyterian mission at



COUNT LAMSDORFF,
Russia's new Foreign
Minister.

Wei Hein, worth \$75,000, and that at Pao-ting-fu, worth \$20,000, have been destroyed. The Congregational mission at Pao-ting-fu is supposed to have been burned, certainly destroyed, and damage has been sustained to missions at Tungcho, Tientsin, Peking and four or five other places. Roman Catholics have lost property of much value, but only in Rome can figures be had, and perhaps not

there. It is believed by those competent to judge that American claims ought not to run above \$500,000. This sum does not include Roman Catholic losses, and in addition to it are the losses of the China Inland Mission of Canada, which have been heavy. Episcopal, Baptist, Friend, and Christian societies have suffered no money loss so far as they know, their work being in South and Central China. Secretaries are talking about special appeals in behalf of societies having work in China, and forbearance of other societies to make appeals at this time, since it is felt that apart from actual losses, much money will be needed to restart interrupted work. Indemnities from the Chinese government are not counted on, for if any come they will be long delayed.

The loss of life by American societies is at present supposed to be confined to Pao-ting-fu. Under the Presbyterian Board those stationed there and thought to have been murdered are the Rev. F. E. Simcox, wife and two children, and Dr. George Yardley Taylor. Under the American Board there were the Rev. Horace T. Pitkin, Miss Annie A. Gould and Miss Mary S. Morrill. These boards held out hope for a long time, but there are many lines of evidence going to show that they were killed on June 30 or July 1. The Church of England lost three missionaries, and the Roman Catholics nine, including one bishop and one monsignor.

Many valuable properties in South China, such as the Anglo-Chinese College buildings at Foochow, and St. John's College at Shanghai, are left in the care of native Christians. Some missionaries found that their presence jeopardized the lives of native Christians, and acting upon the latter's advice, left their fields for Japan, and some even to return home. The China Inland Mission of Canada is known to have lost two workers by murder, and the English societies several in the same way, some of them very early in the history of the outbreak.



But for the engrossing problem in the Far East, international attention would at this time be directed toward Italy. The assassination of Humbert has had no political consequences. Victor Emmanuel III. has retained the cabinet which surrounded his father and indicated the intention of continuing the policy of his house. He seems to have displayed more firmness, grasp and vigor than even friendly observers had credited him with possessing, and tranquility has been preserved. But the quarrel with the Vatican has become more acute, and reconciliation between the monarchy and the church is more remote than ever. A report has



CHINESE GRATITUDE.

—Berlin Ullk.

obtained currency that Humbert had agreed shortly before his death to surrender Rome to the Pope. The clerical organs believe that only the suddenness of the king's removal prevented the realization of the aspirations and cherished desire of the Vatican, — the restoration of the temporal power of the church. When Victor Emmanuel III. acceded to the throne this hope collapsed. The Pope emphasized his hostility to the monarchy by two acts — the prohibition of the use by the clergy of the prayer written by the ex-queen for her murdered husband, and the issuance of a circular letter to the Catholic powers protesting against recognition of Victor Emmanuel as the king of Italy and reasserting the temporal claims of the Pope.

This circular has received no notice and has had no effect. But at home it has bred irritation and friction. Most of Italy's troubles are the direct or indirect result of the conflict between the church and the state. Italy would not be in the Triple Alliance (which involves crushing taxation and expenditure for her) were the monarchy at peace with the Vatican. Parliamentary government then would be more orderly, representative and popular. So long as the Pope's rigid boycott of politics and the government continues, the Conservatives will not exert half the influence upon parliament to which their strength entitles them. The history of Italy's parliament has been an uninterrupted record of factionalism, dissension, inter-group struggles and ministerial changes. It is not surprising that it is held in contempt by large elements of the population.

But whatever difficulties the new king may encounter, he is not likely to abandon the motto of his house, "A Free Church in a Free State," and the concessions will have to come from the Vatican. There is a considerable element in the church which favors reconciliation.



Returns from the office of the Commissioner of Immigration show unmistakably that in the minds of many foreigners America is still the "land of the free." The great majority of emigrants to this country enter it through the port of New York, where the records show that for the last two years the tide of immigration has been increasing. This result is due, in all probability, to social and industrial conditions in Europe, and to more prosperous conditions here. It is stated as an axiom by men who are familiar

with immigration affairs that the number of incoming aliens is a trustworthy indication of the industrial state of the country. In proof they recount that in 1893 and during the period of industrial depression which followed, the number of immigrants at New York declined. Compared with 343,422 in 1892, there were 219,045 in 1893, and the number continued to decrease each year until in 1897 only 178,748 foreigners arrived. The tide turned at this point, because the industrial situation was beginning to improve, and the next year the record showed that 245,550 foreign emigrants had been admitted. The increase has



ROGER WOLCOTT,
United States Ambassador
to Italy.

been steady until it reached, for the last fiscal year, 341,711, the largest number since 1893.

This increasing influx of foreigners, the majority of them illiterate, most of them poor, and many of them social malcontents, forces upon public attention the consideration of one of the most difficult and menacing problems of our national life. If it could be dissociated from its political relations and considered on its merits, its solution might be easier. But so long as it remains in the hands of politicians and is withheld from statesmen there will be no relief. Meanwhile the quality of the immigrants now entering the country is a cause for serious apprehension. Formerly the majority of these aliens came from England, Ireland, Scotland, Germany and the Scandinavian countries, and the general average was high enough to allay fears of the ultimate outcome of the process of assimilation. But now the majority of those entering the port of New York are Italians, Poles, members of the various peoples of the Austro-Hungarian empire, and there is an increasing number and assortment of Orientals, Syrians, Armenians, Turks, Greeks, Slovaks, Croats, Montenegrins, Servians, and other representatives of the Balkan countries.

In 1882 — when immigration reached high-water mark — the center of the area of emigration was Berlin, Paris, and London, but now it has shifted to Vienna or Budapest.

Last year nearly one-third of the emigrants arriving at New York were Italians, and most of them came from the southern provinces of Italy. Then there has been a larger influx of Jews than usual, 44,500 of them having reached New York last year, as against 27,000 the year before, the majority coming from Russia. This statistical exhibit shows the racial proportion of the arrivals at New York for the last two years:

RACE.	1898-'99.	1899-1900.
Armenian	641	841
Bohemian and Moravian	1,935	2,329
Croatian and Slovenian	6,837	8,906
English	4,258	4,346
Finnish	3,349	6,783
French	2,013	1,956
German	21,219	23,382
Greek	2,351	3,734
Hebrew	27,086	44,520
Irish	21,637	25,200
Italian (northern)	13,008	16,690
Italian (southern)	63,481	82,329
Lithuanian	6,033	9,170
Magyar	4,517	11,351
Polish	23,015	36,856
Ruthenian	1,371	2,653
Scandinavian	16,034	22,847
Slovak	13,550	25,392

The financial condition of these people on arriving in this country was such that many of them must have become a burden to the community or to their friends within a short time. The Hebrews averaged \$8 apiece; the northern Italians, \$22, the southern Italians, \$8; the Lithuanians, \$8; the Magyars, Poles, and Irish, \$10; the Slovaks, \$12; the Croats and Greeks, \$15, and the Germans, \$30 each. The facts in regard to illiteracy are appalling. Of the 341,000 immigrants who were permitted to enter the country at New York 79,000, over 14 years old, were unable to read or write. One-third of the Italians and Poles, and one-fourth of the Slovaks and Lithuanians were totally illiterate.



To the students of social science, the significance of the results of the recent national census, so far as they have been made known, resides in the testimony they bring of the continuance of the drift from the country to the cities, especially the few great industrial centers. This tendency, in a measure natural, is deplored when it reaches certain proportions. Cities take great (and somewhat irrational) pride in mere bigness, confounding it with greatness, which is composed of totally different elements. But, human nature being what it is, it is interesting to note the movements

of population to the centers. Here are the figures for a number of leading cities:

Cities.	1900.	1890.	Percentage of increase.
Greater New York	3,437,202	*2,492,591	37.90
Chicago	1,698,575	1,099,850	54.44
Philadelphia	1,293,697	1,046,964	23.57
St. Louis	575,238	451,770	27.33
Boston	560,892	448,477	25.07
Baltimore	508,957	434,439	17.15
Cleveland	381,768	261,355	46.07
Buffalo	352,219	255,664	37.77
San Francisco	342,782	298,997	14.64
Cincinnati	325,902	296,908	9.77
Pittsburg	321,616	238,617	34.78
New Orleans	287,104	242,039	18.62
Milwaukee	285,315	204,486	39.54
Washington	278,718	230,392	20.98
Newark, N. J.	246,070	181,830	33.20
Jersey City	206,433	163,003	26.64
Louisville	204,731	161,129	27.06
Minneapolis	202,718	164,738	23.06
Providence	175,597	132,146	32.88
Indianapolis	169,164	104,436	60.44
Kansas City, Mo.	163,752	132,716	23.39
St. Paul	163,632	133,156	22.89
Rochester	162,435	133,896	21.31
Denver	133,850	106,713	25.44
Toledo, O.	131,822	81,434	61.88
Allegheny, Pa.	129,896	105,207	23.37
Columbus, O.	125,560	88,150	42.44
Paterson, N. J.	105,171	78,347	34.24
Omaha	102,555	140,425	†26.98
Wilmington, Del.	76,508	61,431	24.54
Hoboken	59,364	43,648	36.01
Evansville, Ind.	59,007	50,756	16.26
Kansas City, Kan.	51,418	38,316	34.19

*Approximate. †Decrease.

The ratio for thirty-nine leading cities is 29 per cent, and it is not probable that the small towns and country districts will show the same percentage of increase.

Omaha is the only city which has shown a heavy decline, and in some quarters this is, rather fancifully, attributed to Populism. Chicago is greatly displeased with her returns, though deriving much consolation from the astonishing rate of growth. She had claimed over 2,000,000 inhabitants. New York is satisfied, being now the second city in the world and seeing her former rival, Chicago, fifth on the list, with Paris and Berlin above her.



In one respect the present presidential campaign is unique. It is generally agreed that but one issue is settled by the people in a general election. The platforms may contain any number of propositions, promises or demands; but the voters ordinarily pay scant attention to the subordinate questions, and interest centers in some one "paramount" issue. But what is the paramount issue of the campaign now in progress? In 1896 all parties concurred in recognizing the

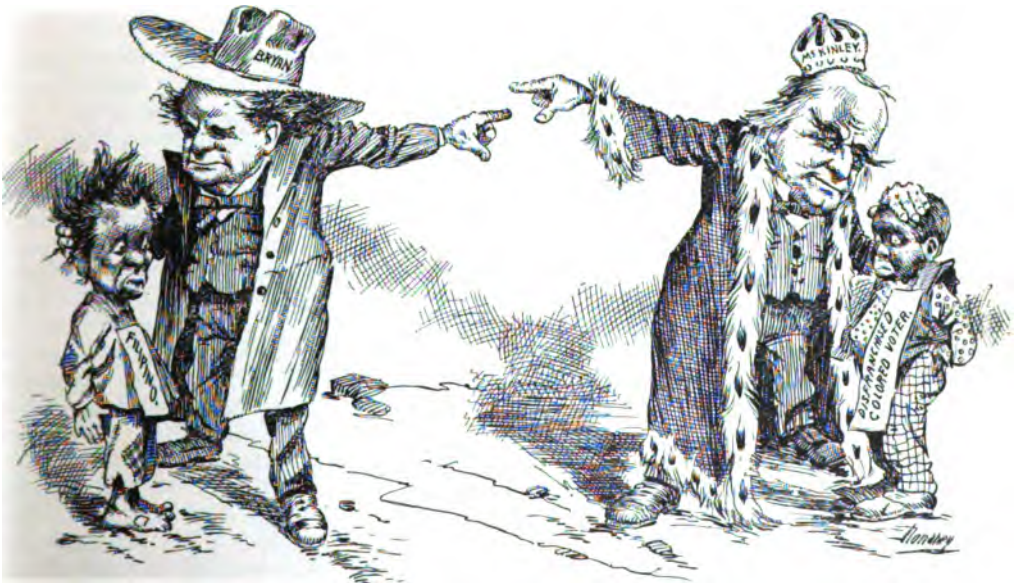
gold standard *vs.* national bimetalism as the great, overshadowing issue. In 1892 the tariff question was predominant. But the two great parties violently disagree as to what is "paramount" in this contest.

The Democrats have formally declared that imperialism,—the adoption of a colonial policy and the governing of subject races "outside of the constitution"—is the paramount issue. The Republicans aver that in making this assertion the wish is father to the thought of the Democratic leaders. The financial question, they further insist, is the real, the great issue once more submitted to the people. The Populists and Silver Republicans, while emphasizing the importance of free silver, indorse the Democratic claim that imperialism is paramount. The Anti-Imperialist League, which held a national conference at Indianapolis, took the same view, and advised all gold-standard Democrats and Republican anti-imperialists to vote for Mr. Bryan, in spite of their uncompromising opposition to his financial proposals. On the other hand, there are anti-imperialists who announce they will support the Republican ticket because it is more important to preserve the existing industrial conditions than to check imperialism, for the latter issue, in their opinion, will remain open for some years to come and can be dealt with in a subsequent election.

Thus the situation is unusually complex

and perplexing to the average voter. What the majority of the American people hold to be the paramount issue, only the returns on November 6 will show. Meantime a difficult question arises under our system of party government and party responsibility. Will the victorious party be bound by the assertions it is now making? If the Republicans win on *their* paramount issue, will they admit that the popular judgment cannot be construed into a vindication of their position on the question of territorial annexation? If the Democrats succeed, will they consent to maintain the financial *status quo* and to confine themselves to action on the issue voted upon by the people?

It is of course notorious that a successful party deems itself free to legislate at will on any subject, regardless of whether it was or was not prominent in the campaign. It would seem to follow that a party must be judged, not by any single test, not by any one declaration on a question claimed by it to be paramount, but by its general policy, conduct and program. There are times when no party is right on all questions or wrong on all questions, and when the voters have to choose between two or more evils they may be guided by the respective positions of the parties on some one issue of first and overwhelming importance, an issue which, temporarily at least, eclipses all others. Is there an issue of this kind before



A WORD OF WARNING.

BRYAN AND McKINLEY: "Beware of that man."

— *Cleveland Plain Dealer.*

the American people today? Each must answer for himself.



Irrespective of personal opinion, every intelligent American who is observing the political trend is interested in what may be styled the "advanced" planks which find their way into party platforms. Nations do not stand still, and that which is radical at one time becomes familiar and even conservative at another. An examination of the national and state platforms of this year's campaign from this point of view would prove interesting and not unprofitable. Here we can note only a few



LEO RASSIEUR,
Elected Commander-in-chief
of the G. A. R.

significant declarations indicative of the progress of political ideas in the United States.

Thus, the Republicans of Wisconsin have put forward a demand for the abandonment of the national convention for nominating purposes. They declare that conventions have ceased to be popular and representative, and have become mere instruments of machines and party bosses. Majority rule in the selection of candidates is required, and this can now be attained only by means of direct nominations at primary elections. Instead of voting for delegates, the party followers might vote for the national and state candidates direct. This is a fruitful proposition, and several influential papers have indorsed it. The convention superseded "King Caucus," and has ruled since 1830. There are many who feel that it has outlived its usefulness and should make room for a more responsible and popular method of nomination.

The national Democratic platform pronounces in favor of the election of federal senators by the people, and many conservative newspapers have indorsed this plank. Republicans are known to sympathize with this proposed reform, and it is free from the element of partisanship. In a number of Democratic platforms we find advocacy of the "initiative and referendum"—that is, direct legislation—as a regular and permanent check

upon legislative bodies. On a limited scale the referendum has been applied in the United States for many years past, but it is plainly destined to indefinite extension. The corruption and inefficiency of legislatures have, in the judgment of many thoughtful men, produced the necessity of resorting to the referendum.

The Michigan Democrats demand "a specific tax upon the great mining interests of the state, levied in accordance with the value of their unearned stores of wealth, which ought never to have been given to private control." This is a partial indorsement of the single-tax doctrine.

As for the Populists, a party which is thoroughly American and strongest in states having a slight foreign admixture, they openly and emphatically advocate government ownership and operation of the means of transportation and communication, both as a remedy against trusts and monopolies, and because of the alleged superiority of government railways, telegraphs, etc., to privately managed public utilities. Though this is the most radical "plank" adopted by any American non-socialist party, it does not excite the opposition it did formerly, for municipal ownership of street railways, gas and water works and electric plants has familiarized the public with the idea, and even business men who would deny all tendency toward socialism are disposed to favor "municipalization" of local public utilities.



The constitution and governmental organization of the American union facilitate and invite social and political experiments. Not only are the several states independent, but the principle of home rule enables counties and municipalities to try all sorts of novel schemes and to modify local arrangements at will. The Australian colonies have been called the home of social-democratic experiments, but there is more room for these in the United States. Leaving differences in taxation, finance, treatment of quasi-public corporations, civil service, and the like on one side, attention may be directed to minor illustrations of the fact alleged. Some cities have established public pawn shops for the accommodation of the poor; others have free employment bureaus for laborers involuntarily idle. A small town in Michigan has opened a municipal theater and expects to manage it efficiently and yield a profit to the taxpayers. Syracuse, New York, established a municipal lodging-house over a year ago,

and proclaims it a distinct success. The country is so vast and its activities so manifold that these innovations scarcely excite comment a few miles away from the localities which severally introduce them, but in the long run the effect must be considerable in preparing public opinion for reform of a more fundamental character. There are able Americans who demand uniform legislation upon a number of important subjects, but the tendencies of the time are against them. Progress is furthered by freedom and variety, and more and more do citizens demand the opportunity to put to the test of practice theories which appear to them attractive on paper. The federal constitution secures uniformity in essential things, and we are not likely to add to the number of these. States and municipalities are jealous of their respective privileges, but while the former are only holding their own as against the national government, the latter are constantly gaining ground at the expense of their principals.



The increasing number of village improvement societies is a healthy sign of the times. Many Chautauquans have been active in the local societies and are interested in the larger movement for the promotion of outdoor art, which is a legitimate expression of the growing spirit of public service. In order to secure the benefits of an interchange of experience and to conserve intelligent direction

for the movement, the editors of *How to Grow Flowers* have projected a national league of public beauty clubs. A call for a national convention at Springfield, Ohio, October 10-11, to organize such an association, has been signed by more than fifty prominent people, including officers of Improvement and Civic Leagues of Ohio, Massachusetts, Georgia, New York, Texas, Wisconsin, Montana, Pennsylvania and other states. Every village improvement association in the United States, and every other society working to promote outdoor art, will be entitled to two delegates in this convention.



THE LATE JOHN J. INGALLS.

All persons who are interested in the success of the wider movement for public beauty are cordially invited and urged to attend.



Sometimes a flower, dropped upon the highway of history, is a more persistent reminder of a dynasty that has come and gone, a kingdom that has waxed and waned, than many a less fragile memorial. A fadeless flowering waits upon the lilies of France in song, romance, and history, though the royal houses whose banners and thrones they blazoned have passed beyond the hope of recall and restoration. Since the twelfth century golden lilies on an azure ground have been a symbol of French royalty, though varied use of this flower device may be traced to Merovingian times. Monkish tradition drops its voice into a low song-cadence to tell that an angel brought the lily-token from heaven to Clovis on the day of his baptism, and that the doughty warrior wore it on his shield as a reverential emblem of the Trinity. Another tradition, hardly less pleasing to fancy, and received much more cordially by the mood that prefers probabilities to possibilities, traces its use back to the custom of the Frankish chieftain to hold a blossoming reed in his hand for a scepter when lifted upon the shield at the proclamation of his sovereignty.

Authorities differ as to whether a variety of the iris or the white garden lily



"WHERE AM I AT?"

—New York World.

originally suggested the fair flower-sign, though a casting vote in favor of the iris would seem to be found in Shakespeare's use of words in Richard Plantagenet's speech:

"This hand was made to handle naught but gold.
I cannot give due action to my words,
Except a sword or sceptre balance it:
A sceptre shall it have, have I a soul,
On which I'll toss the flower-de-luce of France."

The lily-symbol, however, does not belong exclusively to France, for it has been of immemorial use to ornament scepters, seals and other kingly tokens of Greek, Roman, Spanish, and German sovereigns. Some say that Louis VII., Louis Florus, the Louis of the Second Crusade, first reduced the number of lilies from an indefinite cluster on a blue field to what the language of heraldry describes as "Azure, 3 fleurs-de-lis, Or." Others say this was done by Charles VI. of the later Valois line. But when Merovingian, Carolingian, Capetian and Valois kings had had their day, and the haughtiest house of the Old Régime had been seated on the throne, the flower-sign was called the Bourbon lily. It was "under a canopy of purple velvet starred with the golden lily-flowers of their line" that Louis XVI. and Marie Antoinette sat during the religious exercises which opened their day of doom, though they knew it not, at the assembling of the States General in 1789. The throne in the Salle des Menus, from which Louis presided the next day over the first business meeting of a representative body that was to depose him, was also "lily-laden" in its decorations. In 1814, at the Restoration, the Duchesse d'Angoulême, daughter of Louis XVI. and Marie Antoinette, the last survivor of the terrible Temple imprisonment, was received in the palace of the Tuileries by two hundred ladies "dressed in white embroidered with the Bourbon lily." So has the "flower of the lily" which we survey with approval as a decorative design on wall-paper and table-linen been associated with "the pride of life"—and

with the sorrow of it—in high places.



In the wreck of the mail-car at Bayview some weeks ago thousands of letters went into the lake. There were letters of interest to people of every class and condition, and treating of every human emotion—letters that would never reach their destination, for the waves had washed away the envelopes and there was no address within. The immense loss in the wreck of a mail-car the people at large never know. They see the notice that a train has been wrecked; they read that the postal clerks have gone down to death or hewed their way out to safety, and their interest ends. But the sacks and tons of mail!

Many will suffer the agony of suspense and unrealized hopes from this wreck at Bayview. There is a poor mother who will wait and wonder why she does not hear from her son up in the Klondyke, the one who went to find gold that he might make her declining years easier. She will wait and wonder—yet in the recovered wreckage of the mail-car there is a fifteen-page letter, breathing filial devotion and love, she will never see, for the envelope has been washed away and there is no address. Only "My Darling Mother." And there are many "darling mothers" in the land. So the mail clerk will scan this tenderly and then throw it among a heap of others with no addresses. There are love letters in the heap, too, love letters that would cause many a heart to thrill with rapture, but they will never reach their destination, for how can the postal clerk know that "yours lovingly,



WRECK OF A MAIL-CAR AT BAY VIEW.

Mamie," or "your devoted lover, Will," are Miss Mary Stuyvesant Altendorfer and Mr. William Babington Stanhope? It would take more than the acumen of the ordinary postal clerk to know that as cold and stately a beauty as the haughty Miss Altendorfer, and the immaculate, intellectual Babington Stanhope could write such words as "darling," "pet," "sweetheart," and sign themselves by the childish diminutives of "Mamie" and "Will."

One sensible girl will not repine and suffer the pangs of suspense and mortified pride. She sent her picture to her lover, and on the back wrote her address. Under the bright face are the words, "Yours, Maude," and just above the fluffy hair the mail clerk has put the round official stamp enclosing the words: "This mail was damaged in the wreck at Bayview and it is therefore returned to you."

There are business letters, bids for contracts, and mortgages that in many instances will cause embarrassment and harassed, sleepless nights to those who look and wait anxiously for the contents. There are distressing appeals for money to some friend or relative; anger and scorn and perhaps worse things may be engendered because no answer will ever come. And all the pain and unhappiness and untold bitterness might have been avoided if one little rule in letter writing had been remembered: the writer's name and address in the letter.

There are gold rings for slender fingers that will never wear them. There are checks and money, perhaps to the amount of fifty thousand dollars—but for whom destined? No addresses, no names!

Of all the letters about one-third were well written, grammatically and phonetically; but two-thirds were otherwise. Does this speak well for our public schools?

Presbyterians took up the matter of revising the Westminster Confession of Faith in 1892, after three years of agitation, but a report made to the general assembly of that body upon the subject was shelved by the Briggs and McGiffert heresy cases. Now revision is up again. Between thirty and forty presbyteries overtured the last assembly, some for revision and some for a new creed. So the assembly authorized its moderator to appoint a committee. This he did, and the fifteen men, eight ministers and seven elders, who compose it are held to be representative of all doctrinal shades within

the denomination. The committee, meeting in Saratoga near the end of August, drafted some questions to the two hundred and thirty-two presbyteries. These questions ask if revision is wanted, if a new creed is wanted, if an explanatory statement is needed, or if the presbyteries favor dropping the whole subject. Those who say they desire action are asked to specify changes, and to give votes upon which recommendations are made. Presbyteries are considering these questions at their meetings this fall. It is said that any changes made in the confession will not eliminate Calvinistic doctrines. The general opinion is that a long period of agitation is on. The committee here referred to is not authorized to begin work at revision, but to ascertain the mind of the denomination and report the same to the assembly of next May.



THE LATE LORD RUSSELL,
Chief Justice of England.

One hundred thousand dollars comes from an anonymous donor for the erection at Columbia University of a building to be, like the Phillips Brooks House at Harvard, the center of the altruistic life of the university. A site has been selected for it, and the plans are being drawn along the lines of the Brooks House, which cost about the same sum. Within the new Columbia house will be all of the religious activities except religious worship, and even that may be there for a time. The site for a chapel, to stand alone, like Appleton at Harvard, has been set aside, and only awaits funds for its erection.

The leading publishers of the country have formed an association for the purpose of remedying certain evils in the book trade. For some years, especially since the establishment of the "department stores," there have been complaints of the decadence of the book dealers. In former days these dealers occupied a rather elevated position; they were, next to the book reviewers, the guides, counselors and friends of the readers

and patrons of good literature. They always had an assortment of the best books, and the purchasers enjoyed the benefit of their experience and knowledge. But the conditions in their field have been revolutionized,



THE LATE
JOHN CLARK RIDPATH,
Historian.

and not only have they lost dignity and importance, but it is notorious that many of them are on the verge of ruin. Competition has led to cutting of prices and underselling, and nearly all the popular and lighter literature is now distributed by the department stores. The advertised price of a book is rarely the actual price, and the purchaser is not sure that the discount he is getting is the

highest obtainable. Furthermore, the practice of selling successful books as "leaders" has caused the reduction of the prices of the solid and serious works to an extent which renders the handling of them unprofitable. As a result, a good assortment of the higher classes of literature is a rare thing in retail book stores, and the well-to-do patrons are dissatisfied with the situation.

These may seem to be minor evils, but they have demoralized the book trade. Can they be eradicated with advantage to all interests, including the public? The American Publishers' Association will make an attempt at rehabilitation of the book trade. It will endeavor to prevent underselling and to secure the maintenance of uniform and regular prices. It has been suspected in some quarters that the department stores would be antagonized or boycotted, but an official statement of the directors of the association denies that any such intention has been formed. It declares that no publisher of miscellaneous and popular books can afford to ignore that large and expanding channel of distribution. Nothing will be done to restrict the sale of books, and while the success of the publishers' plans would mean somewhat higher prices, the increase would not be burdensome and would not embrace the generality of books.

It has also been charged that the association would reduce author's royalties, and

adopt "trust" methods in dealings with the latter. This, too, is expressly denied, besides being unreasonable on its face. The publisher is the author's partner, and the prosperity of the one is indispensable to the prosperity of the other. Both seek to sell as many copies of a book as possible. The income of the average author is small enough, and will not bear curtailment, while the exceptionally fortunate author is able to dictate his own terms. In the publishing and dissemination of books there is no danger of monopoly. Competition in that field is too active and capable of indefinite extension.

A young man who is rated among the best of our minor poets, dolefully confesses that since he went into the employ of a pill manufacturer as an "ad" writer the Muses have deserted him. He remarks: "I am only a pill-pusher and money-grubber now—and money costs so much. I am seriously thinking of going back to solitude and song one of these days and doing something worth while." The poet is not the only man to learn sometimes that money costs too much.

Mr. James Whitcomb Riley occasionally tells the following story to his friends. A number of years ago Mr. Riley met Josh Billings in the offices of the Redpath Lyceum Bureau, in Boston, when both of these worthies were under engagement to that establishment. Riley and Billings dined together that day, and during the progress of the repast the "Hoosier Poet" mentally concluded that his companion was an affected man, else why would he wear such a long



LOST, STRAYED, OR STOLEN—ONE CHINESE GOVERNMENT.
—Minneapolis Journal.

mane of hair? They spent the evening in Billings's room before an open grate fire. Finally Mr. Billings began to act as though he was sleepy, and his head dropped on the back of his chair. His hair naturally parted, a portion of it falling away from his neck — on which Riley saw an ugly birthmark. It reminded him of a big, red-gray, poisonous berry. This sight led Riley to revamp his opinion of Billings, who, he thought, had a perfect right, in the circumstances, to wear his hair as long as it would grow.



Concerning editorial plans for the year beginning with this issue of THE CHAUTAUQUAN, attention may be called first to the feature entitled "The Rivalry of Nations: World Politics of Today." This comprehensive study of a topic uppermost in the public mind, will supplement last year's study of the social and territorial "Expansion of the American People" by giving a bird's-eye view of the development of all the great nations with which our nation now comes into keener competition than ever. "A Reading Journey in the Orient" will cover a tour from Gibraltar to Alexandria, through Upper and Lower Egypt, Palestine, and Asia Minor to Constantinople, the Greek Islands, Attica and the Peloponnesus. A series of nine "Critical Studies in French Literature" will deal with typical forms, and include three special papers on French fiction. "Inner Life Studies" of historic figures in France and Greece will form another series, complete in itself, but correlated, also, with the more



LORD HOPETOUN,
Appointed Governor of
Australia.

extended course of reading for a "French-Greek" year, provided in books to be read by members of the Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle. In the general contents of the magazine there will be found material possessing not merely current interest, but a pertinent relation to "The Rivalry of Nations" and "French-Greek" history, letters and art.



Professor Edwin A. Start, the author of the articles on "The Rivalry of Nations:

World Politics of Today," has been for the past eight years at the head of the Department of History in Tufts College, the department having been organized by him. He was formerly a journalist and an active worker in politics, so that his judgment upon public questions is that of the man of affairs as well as that of the scholar. He has contributed to the *New England Magazine* several social and historical studies, and work from his pen has appeared in other periodicals. He was the founder and first president of the New England History Teachers' Association, was one of the founders of the



PROF. EDWIN A. START.

Twentieth-Century Club of Boston, and is now a member of the executive committee of its education department, is a member of the American Historical Association, the New England Historic Genealogical Society, the Medford (Massachusetts) Historical Society, and other organizations. He is a native of Massachusetts, and a graduate of Tufts College, where he took the degree of A. B. in 1884, and of Harvard University, where he received the degree of A. M. in 1893.



A new literary field will be revealed to magazine readers in the life stories of pioneer women of the New World, begun in this number under the title "Maids and Matrons of New France." The author of this series of articles is Miss Mary Sifton Pepper, the daughter of the late Rev. George W. Pepper, who was for many years a prominent minister of the Methodist Episcopal Church, and who filled a term as consul to Milan, Italy, during the administration of President Harrison. Miss Pepper is a graduate of Wooster, Ohio, University. She lived in Milan during her father's term as consul and traveled throughout Europe. She gave special attention to modern languages. While residing in Italy she took a course in Italian, French and German literature under professors of Pavia University. Her knowledge of French and Italian caused her to be selected as one of the translators of the monumental work "The Jesuit Relations," comprised in seventy-three volumes. The Old French employed by the

Jesuit Fathers in their voluminous and gossipy letters telling of the Indian aborigines in the forests of the New World was translated by Miss Pepper with much skill and spirit, and was commended by scholars for its fidelity



SHAILER MATHEWS.

to the original. It was while engaged in this work of translation that Miss Pepper's interest was awakened in the French gentle-women whose inspiration led them to share the labors of the pioneer men in this new colony. Her studies disclosed that the heroism and romance of these brave women found little recognition in history. Miss Pepper has been a contributor to the newspapers and magazines, writing much on foreign life and literature. One of her notable articles was on Giosuè Carducci, poet laureate of Italy.

The author of the C. L. S. C. required book, "The French Revolution," which the circles take up this month, is Professor Shailer Mathews, of the University of Chicago. At the present time Mr. Mathews is professor of New Testament History and Interpretation and Junior Dean of the Divinity School; one of the editors of *The Biblical World* and *The American Journal of Theology*, and general editor of the Macmillan Company's "New Testament Handbooks." Among his published works are "Select Medieval Documents" (1892, 1900), "Social Teaching of Jesus" (1894), "History of New Testament Times" (1899). Mr. Mathews was graduated from Colby University in 1884, from Newton Theological Seminary in 1887, studied in the University of Berlin 1890-91, became assistant professor of English in Colby University for a term of two years, then occupied the chair of History and Political Economy for five years, going thence to the University of Chicago in 1894. The book on "The French Revolution" is based upon popular lectures given by Professor Mathews at Chautauqua in 1896.

Two of THE CHAUTAUQUAN'S features last year have been reprinted. The unique study

of "The Expansion of the American People," by Professor Edwin Erle Sparks, is announced for publication this month. To the original title the words "Social and Territorial" have been added. Scott, Foresman & Company, of Chicago, are the publishers. The volume will contain about 400 pages, two additional chapters and a number of cuts having been added to the book. The exceptional success of these articles as a magazine feature warrants the prediction of equal success in book form, with the public. The demand for the "Reading Journey Through France," from clubs and societies looking for timely reading courses, compelled the reproduction of this series of nine articles in pamphlet form. With these illustrated papers have been included full bibliographies, review and search questions and answers to search questions, and the Travel Club programs based on each article which originally appeared in the magazine. This reproduction makes a volume of 124 pages of CHAUTAUQUAN size, and is issued by the Chautauqua Assembly as a special course of the Chautauqua System of Popular Education.

More or less detailed reports from forty-eight Chautauqua assemblies are published in this issue of THE CHAUTAUQUAN. The entire number of these summer gatherings is steadily increasing, and nearly every state in the Union now claims one or more Chautauquas of its own. Many of these assemblies have been carrying on educational work of a high grade for more than a decade—some for twenty years—and although the word Chautauqua is frequently misapplied to institutions lacking both in serious purpose and in educational qualifications, yet in spite of these drawbacks the influence of the assembly movement on the life of the people has been a most wholesome one.

There is a growing disposition on the part of a large proportion of these assemblies to secure for their programs university extension lecturers of the highest reputation; the quality of the Bible work carried on has made encouraging progress, and practical questions relating to education in school and home are more and more receiving consideration. Every assembly which aspires to permanent growth soon learns that its life depends upon securing the coöperation of the best people in the community and keeping steadily in view the highest moral and educational ideals.

MAIDS AND MATRONS OF NEW FRANCE.

I. PIONEER WOMEN OF ACADIA.

BY MARY SIFTON PEPPER.



THE nineteen pioneer women who disembarked on the shores of Massachusetts in 1620 have been celebrated ever since in romance and poetry. Twelve years earlier a banner bearing the lilies of France was planted on the headlands of Quebec. The colony, thus inaugurated, was augmented from time to time by the emigration of small groups of women from the mother country. These few heroic souls, the pioneer women of Canada, played as important a part in its growth, and are as worthy of eternal remembrance as their Anglo-Saxon sisters of New England. Yet, with few exceptions, they have waited in vain for a poet to tell in immortal verse their heroic deeds, or a historian to perpetuate their fame.

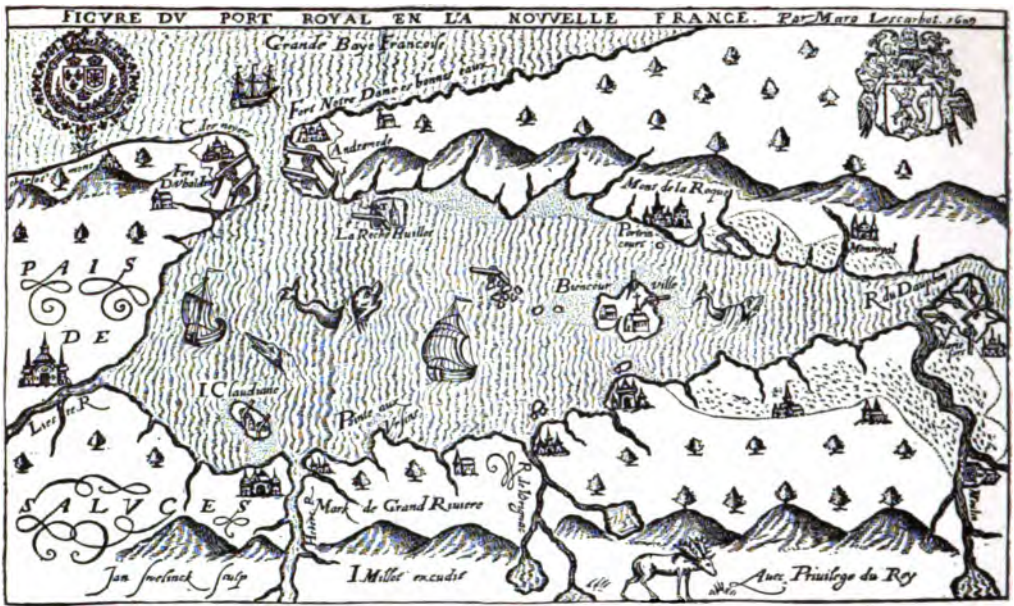
The history of many of these women of the Canadian wilderness never will be known, for it is buried under the soil moistened by their sweat and tears. One of the intrepid sisterhood, Jeanne Mance, has been commemorated by a monument in Montreal; an island resort in the St. Lawrence recalls by its name the brief sojourn of Helen de Champlain on these shores; the annals of a few others have been written by graphic historians; but monuments and histories have done little toward making their names known beyond the confines of the land where they labored and died.

They were few in number: one patient housewife eking out a frugal existence on the rock of Quebec; two or three gentlewomen who, with a sublime but misplaced confidence in the docility of the savages, undertook to teach and civilize them; a few who attempted to introduce the gaiety and corruption of the French court into this primitive civilization; representatives of religious sisterhoods whom the most appalling difficulties could not discourage; and, at last, after nearly a century of failure had opened the eyes of the colonization companies of the Old World, young women who were sent over by the shipful to become the matrons of New France. If the order had been reversed, New France might still be in existence and vying with its neighbor, New England, in prosperity and progress.

Many of these pioneer women, of whom Jeanne Mance was the central figure, would even nowadays be looked upon as "emancipated" and "advanced." Yet it was nearly three centuries ago that Judith de Bresoles renounced the luxury of a wealthy and aristocratic home and devoted seven years to the study of chemistry and medicine, that she might exercise this profession among the savages of the New World; that Marguerite de Roberval, descendant of a long line of French cavaliers and noble dames, wandered alone through the haunted wastes of Demon's Isle, and kept at bay the wild beasts of the wilderness with her old French harquebus; that Marie Guyard with her few brave assistants, delicately nurtured and high-born women of France, made of themselves, in turn, mechanics, architects and farmers in their adopted land; that those dainty nurses, the hospitalières of Quebec, dyed their cherished white garments an ugly brown, that they might follow their profession the more efficiently amid the smoke and uncleanness of the squalid wigwams. "Who now will hesitate to cross over the seas," exclaims a poor missionary at sight of these courageous gentlewomen, "since delicate young women, naturally timid, set at naught the vast expanse of ocean? They who are afraid of a few flakes of snow in France, are ready to face whole acres of it here!"

The coming of these women to the New World was in great part due to the urgent cries for women's help sent over the sea by these early missionaries, who put forth many inducements for their emigration, among others the great salubrity of the Canadian climate. One of them writes that the air of New France is healthful for the body as well as for the soul, while another declares that although the cold is very wholesome for both sexes, it is especially so for the women, who are almost immortal in Canada.

Marc Lescarbot, a society wit of Paris, returned from the ruined Acadian colony of 1607 and wrote a learned treatise on the conditions necessary to the making of permanent settlements in New France, among others urging the need of women there. If there had been some village housewife to



PORT ROYAL, OR ANNAPOLIS BASIN.*

(After Lescarbot.)

look after the cows transported thither with such a vast deal of trouble, they would not have died and left him and his companions without fresh milk and butter. But all these appeals met with only indifferent success, as will be seen in the course of this narrative. The women who came at last naturally arrange themselves into three groups, those of Acadia, Quebec, and Montreal.

MARGUERITE DE ROBERVAL.

Many thrilling stories are related of the making of these French colonies in the New World, in which brave men met their fate, and others survived almost incredible hardships and perils. A few modern historians, referring to this period of colonial history in America, have spoken briefly of the adventures of an unhappy woman, Marguerite de Roberval, on the Isle of Demons. They owe the story, as does the writer, to a quaint old cosmographer, André Thevet, who relates it with many picturesque additions. Here it is as gathered from his account:

One beautiful spring day in the year 1542 a haughty viceroy's ship was pursuing its way across the Atlantic. Suddenly it stopped opposite a lonely island. A boat containing two women, a few stores and four old French harquebuses, was lowered and pushed away. A young man jumped overboard, swam diligently in its wake,

* The illustrations for this article are from "Narrative and Critical History of America," by Justin Winsor, and are used by courtesy of Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

and reached the shore of the island at the same time as the occupants of the boat. Then the three exiles, turning their faces toward the sea, saw with agonized hearts the black and forbidding hulk of the great ship, relentless as its master, move off and leave them to their fate.

Thus the Sieur de Roberval banished his niece, Marguerite, with her lover and nurse, to the Isle of Demons as a terrible punish-



SHOOTING WHITE BEARS.

(From DeVeer's History of Newfoundland.)

ment for a guilty intrigue. Then with his three tall ships and two hundred colonists, he continued on his course to Newfoundland, where he was to meet Jacques Cartier and with him to establish there a great colony which was to perpetuate the name of France in the New World.

A grotesque representation of the Isle of Demons, is shown in an old map of Nuova Francia, which adequately embodies the traditions concerning it. Devils with horns, wings and tails are stalking about and flying like bats through the air. Horrible monsters float in the surrounding waters, and the savages in their canoes are wildly making for the nearest shores. Basque and Maloine fisherman, who, since Cartier's first voyage, had haunted these regions in search of the precious codfish for the lenten season in France, had heard strange sounds there, wailing voices, groans, fiendish shouts and bacchanalian revels, which caused them to cross themselves and flee in terror.

It was in this weird place that Marguerite and her lover, with no priest to consecrate their union, established their home, the first in Canada. The group of three was soon augmented by the advent of a child, and the miniature settlement bade fair to become a factor in the growth of a great colony. But after a few months death left Marguerite alone to battle with her fate. She hollowed out with her own hands the graves of husband, child and nurse, and then began a struggle for life.

Clad in shaggy bearskins, her gun over her shoulder, this "female Robinson Crusoe" trod the dreary wastes of her island home, wandering here and there in search of game, or looking longingly for the outlines of some friendly sail against the dim horizon. At night, in agonies of fear, she barricaded the doors to keep out the bears that roamed about her cabin, or, worse still, the shrieking demons that she thought she saw looking in at her through the chinks in the wall. Her sole protectors were her guns, and these she used to frighten away the evil spirits in the air, or to kill the beasts of prey. The old chronicler tells us that three of the bears brought down by her harquebus were as "white as an egg."

Once she saw far out at sea a canoe of Indians who seemed to be coming towards the island. But their painted faces, ridges of bristling hair and gleaming tomahawks filled her with greater terror than the demons themselves, and she fled shrieking to her cabin. They, too, turned quickly back, for they thought they saw in this strange creature the wife of the Manitou, the source of all their ills.

Two years passed, and Marguerite continued to live in her island home, contending with enemies alike in earth, air and forest, and frequently driven to the extremity of

biting off the ends of fresh young twigs for food. But one October day some Maloine fishermen were setting forth from the Grand Banks on their homeward voyage. Gazing out to sea one of them discerned smoke curling up from the shores of the haunted island. Straining their eyes they could



THE ISLE OF DEMONS.

descrie the figure of a woman clad in ragged skins. She was beckoning them to come on. They hesitated, for the stories they had heard of these evil spirits recurred to their minds. This might be one luring them on to destruction. But suddenly an old sailor recalled the story of de Roberval's niece. Pity and curiosity conquered their fear, and they hastened to the island and disembarked.

The fur-clad, haggard woman proved in truth to be the beautiful Marguerite de Roberval who had been banished there. Without delay they embarked on their eastward journey, leaving joyfully in the distance the shores of the island which from this adventure received the name of "The Maiden's Isle," and which may still be

seen thus designated on the maps of Jean Allefonsce in the great National Library at Paris. As its dark outlines disappeared from view, Marguerite, again the happy, light-hearted French girl, poured into the ears of these rude but sympathetic listeners the story of her trials and adventures.



JACQUES CARTIER.

Arrived in France, her troubles were not yet over. After an exile of two years and five months she found herself still pursued by the wrath of her relentless uncle, and was obliged to hide herself in an obscure little village. Here she remained for several years, when, on a second voyage to the New World, de Roberval and all his crew perished, and she was free to come forth from her hiding-place.

THE MARCHIONESS DE GUERCHEVILLE, FIRST PATRONESS OF AMERICAN MISSIONS.

Sixty-five years after Marguerite's return to France, another high-born French woman comes into prominence in the colonization projects of the mother country. The Marchioness de Guercheville, lady in waiting to Queen Marie de Medici, had been one of the belles in the court of King Henry the Great. But now her youth was passed, her beauty gone, and nothing remained but her indomitable will and intense piety. She was a hater of the Huguenots and a staunch friend of the Jesuits. Through their influence she had constituted herself the patroness of American missions, and no less an ambition filled her breast than the conquest of the whole American continent for the propagation of the Catholic faith.

The owners of the ship which was to transport thither the two Jesuit priests selected by the king for this mission, were not so enthusiastic. They were stern Huguenots, and declared they would have nothing to do with the transportation of these Jesuits, unless it were to carry the whole order across the sea. Thereupon, the energetic marchioness, encouraged and aided by the queen, took up a collection among the noblemen of the court and bought the ship with all its equipments from the rebellious merchants. The missionaries were sent to New France, not as passengers, but as masters of the ship. "What a woman wills, God wills," the French say. And so it seemed in this case, for through the adroit management of this clever woman the first French missionaries disembarked on the shores of Canada. A cross was erected and the arms of the Marchioness de Guercheville were blazoned thereon, in token that they took possession of the country in her name.

These missionaries took up their residence at Port Royal, in Acadia, in the year 1611. This colony had been established by two French noblemen, the Sieurs de Monts and de Poutrincourt, and was now in charge of the latter's son, Charles de Biencourt, who, secretly a Huguenot, put all the obstacles he could in the way of the "black gowns," as he called them. Two years had hardly elapsed after their arrival before they were longing for the coming of the ship which was



CARTIER'S MANOR.

to take them to new fields. The relief expedition came at last, fitted out also by Mme. de Guercheville, and a new and independent colony was founded by her at St. Savior on Mt. Desert Island. This was soon destroyed by the English under Captain Argall, known in Virginian annals as the abductor of Pocahontas. The two missionaries were forced to guide the

English captors back to Port Royal, that this French settlement also might be destroyed. Thus began between these two European nations that struggle for supremacy which ended one and a half centuries later in the fall of Quebec.

Our way now lies with Charles de Biencourt and his ruined colony, rather than with Mme. de Guercheville's discomfited missionaries, although it may not be out of place to add that they finally reached their native land in safety, one never again to leave it, the other to begin a new chapter of missionary labor at Quebec twelve years later. The incensed marchioness was amply indemnified by the English government for the ruin of her colony.

THE LADY DE LA TOUR, A FAIR CHATELAINESSE OF ACADIA.

After the destruction of Port Royal, Biencourt, a high-spirited youth who preferred the free life of the pioneer to the sycophancy of the court, continued to lead a half-savage, adventurous life in the forests of Acadia until his death in 1623, when he bequeathed all his rights in Acadia to his friend and the companion of his adventures, Charles de la Tour, Baron de St. Estienne.

La Tour removed from Port Royal and built a formidable stronghold, known as Fort Latour, opposite the Bay of St. John. Here he dwelt in feudal splendor with his wife, a Huguenot lady whom he had met and married in Acadia, and an extensive retinue of soldiers and retainers. A flourishing trade was carried on with the Indians, who came down the river St. John to dispose of their furs and other commodities. Into this little harbor came ships from France every year bringing wares of all kinds and returning laden with valuable skins and fish. Wine was manufactured from the wild grape, the forests abounded in game and the rivers in fish, and all went well for some years in the primitive settlement.

But in the course of time young La Tour found himself harassed by many rival claimants to his territory. The most formidable of these was Charles de Menou, Seigneur D'Aulnay de Charnisay, a Catholic knight who had come to Port Royal in 1632 in the train of a powerful noble who wished to establish a colony there. The lands of Charnisay adjoined those of La Tour, and he contended that the latter had no valid title to his territory. Their dissensions extended over a number of years and finally

culminated in the siege of Fort Latour. The brave stand made by the Lady La Tour in this siege has given her a place among the heroic pioneer women of Canada.

During one of the long absences of her



MARIE DE MEDICI.

husband in search of redress from his enemy's persecutions, Charnisay determined to storm the fort and capture the fair chatelaine and all her retainers. Accordingly, one day late in the winter of 1645 he anchored his vessels in the harbor of St. John. He waited long, expecting to see the flag which waved from one of the bastions pulled down as a sign of surrender. For, although Lady La Tour's stanch spirit was well known to him, since it had foiled many of his attempts in the past, he thought she would not dare brave so formidable a fleet as that which now confronted her. But the flag continued to wave from the tower. He opened fire on the little fort, but was straightway deluged with such a storm of shells that his ship was nearly sunk before the very eyes of the courageous chatelaine, who herself was directing the charge from one of the bastions. The fierce cannonading continued, until, finding his ship too badly shattered to be of further use, and twenty of his men killed, Charnisay, humiliated and enraged, withdrew his forces.

In two months he returned and found the fort in the same defenseless condition. Lady La Tour's hope that her husband would

return in the meantime with reënforcements was vain, for the enemy had placed ships out at sea to prevent his entering the harbor. This time she thrice repulsed the enemy's attacks, which were by land, and Charnisay was again forced to draw off his forces. After failing in other attempts he finally bribed one of the sentries, and on the fourth day of the siege, which was Easter Sunday, Charnisay and his men succeeded in scaling the walls. But before they had reached the other side, the garrison within rushed upon them with such determination and courage that twelve of Charnisay's men were killed and he was obliged to withdraw again. He then resorted to diplomacy. He proposed to Lady La Tour that, if she would capitulate, he would give the inmates of the fort life and liberty. Seeing the hopelessness of further resistance, the disheartened lady consented to this proposal; better life and liberty for the men who had held out so bravely, than final capture and death.

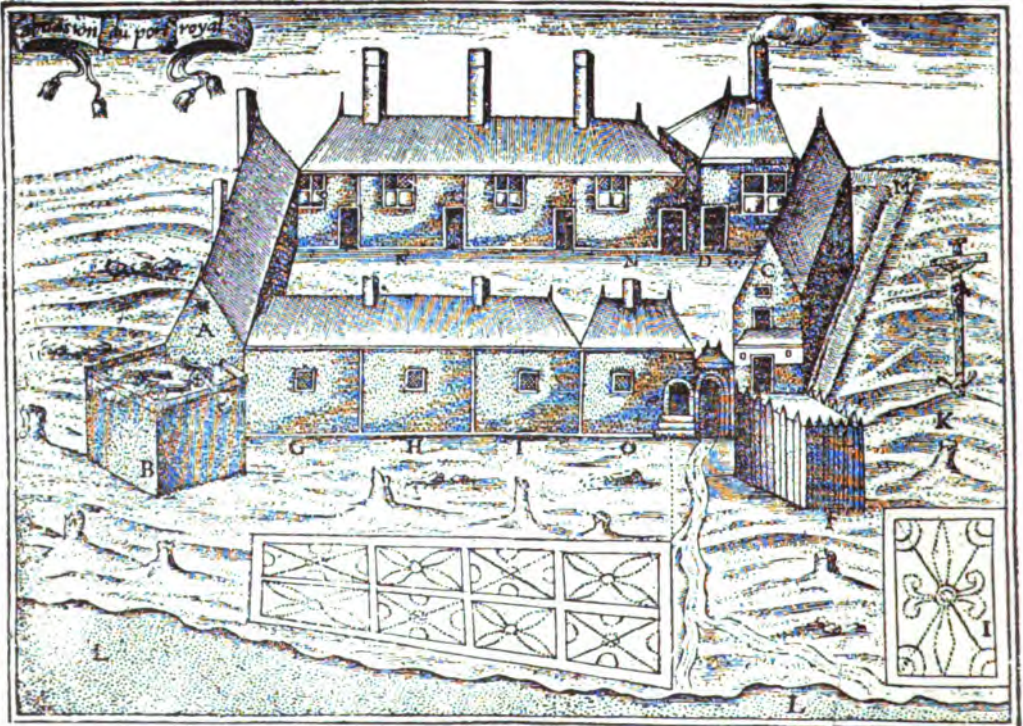
The victor no sooner found himself in possession of the fort, for which he had been striving for years; than his real design became evident—to murder the whole garrison, declare his sovereignty over all of Acadia, and drive the La Tours from the land.

He immediately proceeded to execute this purpose by hanging every man except one, who was given his life for the privilege of taking that of the others. Lady La Tour herself narrowly escaped the same fate, for a halter was placed around her neck and only a whim of the captor spared her life. But the capture of the fort, the brutality of the victors and uncertainty regarding the fate of her husband so preyed upon her already broken spirit that a few days later she died in the arms of an old servant.

The story of her defense of Fort Latour has been told by one of New England's poets,* but not in the lofty strains of the poet of Evangeline, who, a century later, wept tears of anguish and despair over her exile from the same beautiful Acadia that was the scene of Lady La Tour's adventures.

“ Of its sturdy defenders
Thy lady alone
Saw the cross-blazoned banner
Float over St. John.
‘ Let the dastard look to it!’
Cried fiery Estienne,
‘ Were D’Aulnay King Louis
I’d free her again!’

* Whittier, “St. John, 1647.” See also *Atlantic Monthly* for April, 1900, “An Acadian Easter.”



PORT ROYAL, 1609.
(From Champlain's Drawing.)

" Alas for thy lady!
 No service from thee
 Is needed by her
 Whom the Lord hath set free:
 Nine days in stern silence,
 Her thralldom she bore,
 But the tenth morning came
 And death opened the door!

" As if suddenly smitten
 La Tour staggered back:
 His hand grasped his sword hilt,
 His forehead grew black.
 He sprang on the deck
 Of his shallop again,
 ' We cruise now for vengeance!
 Give way!' cried Estienne.

" O, the loveliest of heavens
 Hung tenderly o'er him,
 There were waves in the sunshine
 And green isles before him:

But a pale hand was beckoning
 The Huguenot on:
 And in blackness and ashes
 Behind was St. John."

A strange fate seemed to guide the fortunes of Charles La Tour, husband of this hapless lady. After the seizure of his fort by Charnisay he spent four years in exile, then, when he was sixty years old, hearing of Charnisay's death (he was drowned in the Penobscot river) he immediately set sail for France and obtained the restitution of his charters. Armed with these, he returned to Acadia, married Charnisay's widow, and thus forever settled the feuds between the two families, and ended this period of Acadian conflict.

(To be continued.)

THE MEASURE OF EYES.

The devil's ghost came out of the ditch
 (Where the devil is buried) and slyly crept
 Where a twentieth century statesman
 slept;
 Premier or president, no matter which.

" It is nothing that any man need abhor.
 All men must die, be it soon or late;
 And the passing of these shall make you
 great,
 For they shall die in civilized war."

" Look!" cried the devil, " look over the sea
 At the foreign nations, great and small.
 Nay, I will not offer to give you all
 As I offered a Man of Galilee,

" O! ah!" said the statesman, " I see, I see.
 And now that I think, some men are rude
 And others there are who are different hued,
 O different quite from you and me!"

" But if one of the least of these you prize,
 I will give it to you at the cheapest rate,
 Almost too paltry a price to state;—
 A bleeding bushel of human eyes!"

So the devil collected his ghastly cost
 A dozen times over in fields and forts
 And you and I read the war reports
 Which told of the " glory" won or lost.

" Away, away, thou horror of hell,
 Thou viperous vision, thou vampire-ghoul!
 Dost think me as foul as thou and fool?
 Away, for I scorn thy sinful spell."

" Glory!" God, what a blind fool's herd!
 The devil speaks soft and he works our ill
 To the uttermost notch of his evil will;
 His is the act and ours the word.

" Nay, friend, if your stomach be somewhat
 nice,
 You need not deliver the eyes alone.
 Leave them their sockets of flesh and bone
 And I still will pay the market price.

We saw not, we heard not. We never knew
 The statesman was filling the devil's meas-
 ure;
 But into the ditch he took the treasure,
 Blinded and bleeding, black, brown, blue.

—Edmund Vance Cooke.



"GIRONDISTS ON THEIR WAY TO THE GUILLOTINE."



"MME. ROLAND AT THE GUILLOTINE."

GIRONDISTS ON THEIR WAY TO THE GUILLOTINE.

From the painting by Piloty.

Karl Theodor Von Piloty, a famous German historical painter, born at Munich, Bavaria, 1826. He studied art there and at other art centers of Europe, produced his first work in 1853, and in 1874 was elected president of the Munich Academy of Fine Arts, where he had been for many years an instructor. Among his best known pictures are "Wallenstein's Assassination" (1858), "Nero Among the Ruins of Rome" (1861), and "The Death of Cæsar."



MME. ROLAND AT THE GUILLOTINE.

From the painting by Royer.

The wife of the ex-minister of the interior addresses the statue of "Liberty" with the memorable words: "O, Liberty, what crimes are committed in thy name."

Lionel Royer, French historical and portrait painter, pupil of Cabarel. Awarded a medal of the third class in the Salon of 1884.



"EPISODE OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION."

EPISODE OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.

From the painting by Hoff.

Karl Hoff, a well-known German landscape and *genre* painter, born 1838. Medals at Berlin and Vienna. Other paintings, "Repose During Flight in Time of Louis XIV" (1866), and "Draught on Horseback" (1873).



LA FRANCE.

From the sculpture by Cabet.

This figure well expresses the despair of a land rent with the horror of the Age of Un-Reason.

Jean Baptiste Paul Cabet. French sculptor. Born at Nuits in 1815. Among his most famous works are the figure of "Theology," cut in stone, for the Church of the Sorbonne, "The Awakening of Spring," and a statue of "Resistance" for Dijon, besides many portrait busts. He was a member of the jury of l'École des Beaux-Arts at its yearly exhibitions.



LA FRANCE.

FRENCH REVOLUTION.

POLITICAL CLUBS DURING THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.

BY JOHN W. PERRIN.



WHEN the States General met at Versailles on May 5, 1789, events in France were already ripe for revolution. No sooner had this body begun its deliberations than a dispute as to the manner of voting arose, and continued for six weeks. When it had ended, the estates were united in one assembly whose members were roughly divided into two parties. The party of the Right, composed chiefly of the nobles and higher clergy, was attached to privilege through self-interest, and was opposed to change. In the party of the Left were the deputies representing the Tiers État, a few nobles and most of the lower clergy. This party was in full sympathy with the spirit of reform, and was anxious to begin the work of national regeneration.

Events moved rapidly, and soon the radicalism they brought forced into combination with the Right many men who believed in reform. Some of these, through a study of English history, had come to admire the English political system, and hoped to see something like it established in France. The party of the Left was more heterogeneous than that of the Right, and was made up of men of all classes. In its ranks were Lafayette, Garat, Barère, Bailly, Camus, the leader of the Jansenists, Mirabeau, and Talleyrand. These were among the ablest and most influential men of France. If their counsels had prevailed, France might have been spared many of the political storms that came in the following years. In their party, too, were Dupont, Barnave and Comte Charles Lamette, three able and uncom-

promising democrats who continually and violently preached the doctrines of theoretic democracy. Their propagandism was effective, and it drew around them many ambitious radicals, like Robespierre, Pétion and Rewbell, thus forming the nucleus of a party that was destined to control the Assembly.

Each of the parties endeavored to win converts; at first through religion, then through political clubs. In the organization of clubs the party of the Left was the more successful. The first club was formed in 1789 at Versailles by the deputies from Brittany, and was called the "Breton Club;" but later its name was changed to "Société des Amis de la Constitution." When the king and the Assembly went to Paris in October, the club followed, and took up its residence in the library of the old Jacobin convent in the Rue St. Honoré. It immediately threw open its doors to all ardent supporters of the revolution, and it was not long until the radicals of the Assembly, who followed the lead of Dupont and Barnave, made it their headquarters. Its leaders were men who came chiefly from the middle class; some of them had been accustomed to lead in practical affairs, and all were men who were now anxious to make their way in political life. They came from various vocations. Robespierre was a lawyer; Camille Desmoulins and Hébert were journalists; Marat had practiced medicine; St. Just was a student; Collot d'Herbois was an actor; and Grégoire, Chabot and Lebon were priests. Its organization was almost perfect, and its power increased so rapidly that it soon dominated the commune of Paris.

After the fall of the Bastille, another club, the Cordeliers, began to meet daily. Like the Jacobin Club, it was composed of every kind of man. Here were to be found the pedantic Sieyès, the author of "What is the Third Estate?," the dramatist D'Eglantine, the profligate Hébert, and Danton, the president and master spirit of the club. It was more popular than the Jacobin Club was in its later days. While it is true that the people were admitted to the galleries of the latter club, its membership was composed principally of politicians. These two clubs were generally opposed to each other, and

[EDITOR'S NOTE.—There is always a fascination in seeking to discover what makes the wheels of government go round. Our national constitution does not say anything about nominating conventions, national committees, Republican and Democratic literary bureaus, Tammany, "Rough Rider" clubs and the like, yet through such extra-constitutional machinery public opinion is converted into government under the constitution. Neither Tammany nor the more ephemeral "Rough Rider" clubs can be said to have descended from the Jacobin Club and its rivals in the days of the French Revolution. But political clubs are by no means a new thing under the sun. Those of the French Revolution were inaugurated and led by members of the States General, and in them the genius of the French people for factions in politics rather than for stable political parties found characteristic expression.]

they differed sharply in their organization and spirit. The Cordeliers limited its efforts at propagandism to Paris; it had no affiliated provincial clubs. It favored free speech, urged the establishment of a republic, and vigorously defended the presence of the whole people in politics, in opposition to that faction led by Bailly and Lafayette who attempted to limit the revolution to the middle classes. It was a club of radicals who were rebellious as long as the revolution was incomplete, and who were willing to commit illegal acts to complete it.

A Jacobin club was established at Marseilles before the end of 1789, and within the first six months of 1790 one was organized in each of the large towns. But it was after the national federation, July 14, 1790, that Jacobin influence spread most rapidly. Then branch societies began to be organized all over France, and as an aid to this, the club at Paris in the autumn of 1790 founded the *Journal des Amis de la Constitution*, of which Laclos became editor. The journal spread Jacobin opinions, and increased rapidly the organization of clubs. Before the end of the year, Laclos was able to publish a list of over one hundred and twenty provincial clubs. By 1791 there were nearly four hundred; in June of the next year, this number had increased to twelve hundred; and when the republic was established, excellent authority estimates the number of affiliated clubs at twenty-six thousand, one for every commune in France. Very soon these clubs became centers of the advanced revolutionary feeling; the young radicals of the provincial towns flocked to them, and through them they controlled local politics. In Paris, Lyons, Aix and Bordeaux there were two clubs; one was composed of the more respectable, and the other of the lower elements of society. The latter was always a branch of the former,—and in times of urgent need supplied it with rioters.

As Jacobin influence spread throughout the provinces, its radicalism increased. Then a number of the more moderate members, led by Lafayette, Talleyrand, Sieyès and La Rochefoucauld, withdrew from it and formed the "Club of 1789," which they hoped would counteract Jacobin influence. In this they were disappointed; and eleven months later it was broken up by a mob. Only once from this time till the days of the Terror was it possible for conservatism to supplant Jacobinism. After the king had been brought back to Paris from Varennes, the Assembly assumed control of all affairs.

It was the prevailing opinion that the king's purpose had been to escape to the emigrants in order to make war upon France. This opinion increased the strength of the clubs. The Cordeliers boldly demanded that the king should be dethroned and a republic established. The Jacobin Club favored Louis's deposition, but it hesitated to propose the abolition of the monarchy. At a meeting of the club on the 13th of July, Robespierre, who was now beginning his career as a representative leader, declared that he was not a republican, and that the word "republic did not signify any particular form of government."

Defeated in the Jacobin Club, the republicans attempted to keep up the agitation by a public demonstration. A meeting to secure signatures to a monster petition was held July 17, on the Champs de Mars. The excitement broke out in fighting, and then Lafayette at the head of the National Guard dispersed the crowd. The republican agitation collapsed and the triumph of the law and order seemed complete. Danton repaired to the country; Marat made preparations for a return to England; Desmoulins suspended the issue of his paper, the *Vieux Cordelier*, and almost all of the members of the Assembly deserted the Jacobin Club.

Now the Constitutional party formed a new club, the Feuillants, to unite the old monarchy with the new constitution. At this time the advantage was with the Constitutionalists, and had they been sufficiently energetic they might have stamped out the Jacobin movement. But they did nothing and their opportunity was lost. In a little time the influence of Robespierre once more began to assert itself in the Assembly. The reviving influence of the Jacobin Club is clearly seen in September when it succeeded in carrying a resolution that made the members of the present Assembly ineligible to the next. In this way it drove its most active enemies from power. It controlled the election, too; and when the new Assembly convened on the 1st of October, there was a large increase of radical deputies who immediately became members of the Jacobin Club. From this time until the fall of Robespierre, almost all of the great events were determined by the voice of this club. It reached the zenith of its power when the national convention met in September, 1792. "The agitation for the death of the king, the destruction of the Girondist deputies, the turning of the rabble against the *bourgeoisie*, and the Reign of Terror were all its work."

The revolution reached its height in November, 1793. This was accomplished by the influence of the Paris commune. The commune had complete possession of the Cordeliers Club and many supporters in that of the Jacobin. Hébert, the editor of *Père Duchesne*, was its leader, and through his influence a proclamation was issued ordaining the worship of Reason. Danton, Desmoulins and Robespierre all attacked the atheism of the Hébertists. Robespierre spoke on the religious question at the Jacobin Club, and ended by proposing that the club be purged of atheism. The Hébertists, defeated at the Jacobin Club, now made their headquarters at the Cordeliers. But the reaction against the commune had begun and its destruction was at hand.

The events that followed divided the Jacobins into three factions. The faction that followed Danton had become conservative and now condemned the cruelties of the

Terror; that which followed Hébert believed in communism and atheism, and had it come into power "would have made the Terror the regular government of France." Between these two factions, opposing both the conservatism of Danton and the atheistic communism of Hébert, stood Robespierre. To make his own power complete, he now resolved to crush both factions. The Hébertists were the first to fall and Danton and his party worked with Robespierre to encompass it. Ten days later Danton's destruction had been accomplished. Robespierre was now supreme; but this power did not last long, for the prophecy of Danton that "as Hébert dragged down Danton, Danton would drag down Robespierre" was speedily fulfilled. He was overthrown July 27, 1794. In the following October, the convention forbade the affiliation of clubs, and in November the Jacobin Club was suspended.

THE STUDY OF RURAL LIFE.

BY KENYON L. BUTTERFIELD.

(Editor *Michigan Farmer*.)



HE American farm problem, so far as it is sociological, has not as yet had the attention that it deserves from students. Much less have the questions that concern rural social advancement found the popular mind; in truth, the general city public has not been deeply interested in the farmer. These facts are partially attested by the small number of articles in the periodicals of the day which bear on education, economics and social life, as they relate to the farmer.

But there seem to be indications that the sentiment is changing. The interest shown in recent articles on the rural situation by Rollin Lynde Hartt and others, and the discussion of Governor Rollins' fast-day proclamation are recent evidences of an aroused attention to rural conditions. This is well. The sociologist can hardly afford to omit the rural classes from the scope of his study, especially if he desires to investigate the practical phases of his subject. Moreover, no one with intelligent notions of affairs should be ignorant of the forces that are in control of rural life.

view of this apparent change in the

attitude of people toward the farm problem, it may not be idle to suggest some possible errors that should be avoided when we are thinking of rural society. The student is likely to approach his problem fortified against misconceptions—he probably has thoughtfully established his view-point. But the average person in the city is likely to call up the image of his ancestral home of a generation ago, if he were born in the country, or, if not, to draw upon his observations made on a summer vacation or on casual business trips into the interior. Or he takes his picture from "Shore Acres" and the "Old Homestead." In any case it is not improbable that the image may be faulty and as a consequence his appreciation of present conditions wholly inadequate.

In the first place it is not fair to compare country life as a whole with the best city conditions. This is often done. The observer usually has education, culture, leisure, the experience of travel, more or less wealth; his acquaintance is mostly with people of like attainments. When he fails to find a rural environment that corresponds in some degree to his own and that of his friends,

he is quick to conclude that the country has nothing to offer him, that only the city ministers to the higher wants of man. He forgets that he is one of a thousand in the city, and does not represent average city life. He fails to compare the average country conditions with the average city conditions, manifestly the only fair basis for comparison. Or he may err still more grievously. He may set opposite each other the worst country conditions and the better city conditions. He ought in all justice to balance country slum with city slum; and certainly so if he insists on trying to find palaces, great libraries, eloquent preachers, theaters, and rapid transit in each rural community. City life goes to extremes; country life, while varied, is more even. In the country there is little of large wealth, luxury, and ease; little also of extreme poverty, reeking crime, unutterable filth, moral sewage. Farmers are essentially a middle class, and no comparison is fair that does not keep this fact ever in mind.

We sometimes hear the expression "Country life is so barren—that to me is its most discouraging aspect." Much country life is truly barren; but much more of it is only relatively and not essentially so. We must admit that civilization is at least partially veneer; polish does wonders for the appearance of folks as well as of furniture. But while the beauty of "heart of oak" is enhanced by its "finish," its utility is not destroyed by a failure to polish it. Now, much of the so-called barrenness of country life is the oak minus the polish. We come to regard polish as essential; it is largely relative. And not only may we apply the wrong standard to the situation, but our eyes may deceive us. To the uninitiated a clod of dry earth is the most unpromising of objects—it is cousin to the stone, and the type of barrenness. But to the elect it is pregnant with the possibilities of seed-time and harvest, of a full fruitage, of abundance and content for man and beast. And there's many a farm home, plain to an extreme, devoid of the veneer, a home that to the man of the town seems lacking in all the things that season life, but a home which virtue, intelligence, thrift, and courage transform into a garden of roses and a type of heaven. I do not justify neglect of the finer material things of life, nor plead for drab and homespun as passports to the courts of excellence; but I insist that the plainness, simple living, absence of luxury, lack of polish that may be met with in the

country, do not necessarily accompany a condition barren of the essentials of the higher life.

Sometimes rural communities are ridiculed because of the trivial nature of their gossip, interests, and ambitions. There may be some justice in the criticism, though the situation is pathetic rather than humorous. But is the charge wholly just? In comparing country with town we are comparing two environments; necessarily, therefore, objects of gossip, interests, and ambitions differ therein. We expect that. It is no criticism to assert that fact. The test is not that of an existing difference, but of an essential quality. Is not Ben Bolt's new top buggy as legitimate a topic for discussion as is Arthur John Smythe's new automobile? Does not the price of wheat mean as much to the hard-working grower as to the broker who may never see a grain of it? May not the grove at Turtle lake yield as keen enjoyment as do the Continental forests? Is the ambition to own a fine farm more ignoble than the desire to own shares in a copper mine? It really does not matter so much what one gossips about or what one's delights are or the carving of the rungs on ambition's ladder; the vital question is the effect of these things on character. Do they stunt or encourage the inner life? It must be admitted that country people do not live up to their opportunities for enjoying the higher life of mind and heart. But do they differ in this respect from their cousins of the town?

We must remember, too, that this is a large country, and that a study of rural conditions in a certain community, township, county, state, or section, may not give us the correct basis upon which to determine the agricultural status of the country.

Nor must we make the mistake of confusing conservatism and decadence. That the city will in many particulars always progress more rapidly than the country is inevitable. But speed is not the ultimate criterion of a full life. Again must we apply the test whether the gain is relative or essential. Telephones, free-mail delivery, electric car lines, operas, great libraries, cathedrals come to the city first, if not solely. The country cannot hope to be other than inherently conservative as regards such institutions. But may there not be found such adaptations of or substitutes for these institutions as shall not only preserve the rural community from decadence, but, indeed, build it up into strength, beauty, and

purity? Comparative lack of identical resources need not mean poverty of attainment. Let us agree that relatively the country will lag behind the town. Is the country continually gaining in those things that are fundamentally important and that minister to its best life? is the kernel question.

Perhaps the most common error in studying rural conditions is the failure to distinguish the vital difference between the urban problem and the rural problem. *The city problem is that of congestion. The farm problem is that of isolation.* The social conditions of country and city are wholly different. Institutions that succeed in alleviating social disorders in the town may or may not succeed in the country,—in any event they must be adapted to country needs. This applies to organizations, schools, libraries, social settlements. And the adaptation must be one not only of form but of spirit. In other words, the farm problem is a peculiar problem, demanding special study, a new point of view, and sometimes unique institutions.

Those accustomed to large cities make a pretty broad classification of "country." A town of five thousand people is to them "country." But it is not country. The

problem of the village and the small town is not the rural problem, take it the nation over. The smaller the town, the more nearly it approaches to rural conditions, but its essential problem is not that of the farm.

And, finally, let no one suppose that philanthropy is the chief medicine for the social ill-health of the country. The intelligent student who possesses the true spirit of helpfulness may find in the rural problem ample scope for both his brain and his heart. But he will make a fundamental and irreparable error if he starts out with the notion that pity, charity, and direct gifts will win the day. You may flatter the American farmer; you cannot patronize him. He demands and needs, not philanthropy, but simple justice, equal opportunity, and better facilities for education. He is neither slave nor pauper.

To conclude: There is a farm problem, and it is worth solving. But it differs from the city problem. And if, as is to be hoped, the recently-renewed interest in this question is to be permanent, we trust that those who desire to make it a special study, as well as those whose interest in it is general and widely human, may from the start avoid the errors that are likely to obscure rural conditions when viewed through city eyes.

EDUCATION ON THE FARM.

BY ELEANOR KINLEYSIDE HOWELL.

(Coats, Kansas.)



Often hear parents in the country say, "I do wish we could move to the city for the sake of the children's education," and we often hear it maintained as one of the advantages of city life over life on a farm that the city schools are superior to those of the country, and that the children there stand a much better chance of getting a good education. These ideas arise, apparently, from a misapprehension of the meaning of the word education, and a confusion of the terms education and schooling. When we remember that our greatest president had less than twelve months' schooling in his life, we can see the difference in the meaning of the terms. I think no one will deny that all his life, by what seem to us hardships and trials, he was being *educated* for the great position he was destined to fill. Perhaps the very absence of schooling, as we understand it today, fitted him more

perfectly for his future greatness. With all deference to Froebel, Pestalozzi and their followers, can anyone imagine Abraham Lincoln's beginning *his* education in a kindergarten? We finish our schooling when we leave school, but our education is not finished until we hear the summons, "Come up higher." Nay, even then, we are fain to hope, we will find it has but begun.

But is it true that the city child has so much the advantage of the child on the farm in all that constitutes a good education? A western educator, writing for an educational journal, makes the following statement:

"In some things the old-time schools were better than those of today. We surpass them in mechanical drill and methods of instruction, but in some way they reached the heart, and quickened the conscience, and turned out men and women of whom the world has not been ashamed. How they did it is a study worthy of attention."*

*Henry Sabin, formerly state superintendent of instruction in Iowa, in *Teachers' World*, June, 1899.

Is it not in part this mechanical drill that takes away the strength of the modern school? It takes away the originality from both teacher and pupil, and turns out a sort of machine-made work which is very fine to look at, but when it comes to the real wear and tear of life the pupils turned out by the old "hand-made" process come out ahead. Then the pupil of today goes to school to *be taught*. The schools are provided for him. He feels rather as if he is doing them a favor to attend. The teachers are there, paid to teach him; to pour into him as much education as it is possible for him to receive. The old-time pupil went to school to *learn*. The teacher—with his hands full from A B C-darians to boys fitting themselves for college—was there only to help him to learn, and the difference in the result of the two processes shows when we look at the work of the scholars, statesmen and presidents who were turned out under the old régime, and contrast it with the forms of "English as she is taught" in the answers on the examination papers of today. Our country schools, though somewhat infected by the craze for drill and new methods of instruction, must, in the very nature of things, be more like the old-time school than the vast modern city machine. The teacher, with all the pupils in one room, and usually a short term, has not much time for what I have heard called the "fancy frills." The farmer's boy or girl knows that on himself or herself depends the progress made during the school term, and their progress is often remarkable.

Again, the wee ones are not shut up for a whole year with pupils knowing no more than they do themselves, but when they have finished their own small recitations, have plenty of time and opportunity to absorb a great deal of information on various subjects from the recitations of the higher classes. I know from my own observation that children in the country have many facts in physiology, geography, and especially in history, impressed on their minds long before they are old enough to take up these studies for themselves. Possibly this may explain a fact told me by a superintendent of public instruction in a neighboring county. He said, "I do not understand why it is, but the pupils from the ungraded rural schools pass a more intelligent examination for a teacher's certificate than do those from a graded school where they have always been used to written examinations." A Band of Mercy editor corroborates his remark when she

says, "The letters and stories coming to me from children in the country are much better than those from the city children." The children have not had all the originality drilled out of them.

So much for the schooling; now for the education outside of the school walls. The child on the farm has not the evil influences of the city street to contend with, nor the mischief that is found "for idle hands to do." I know it is the fashion with many writers to represent the farmer as an unintelligent "hayseed," and his wife as a slavish drudge. As a matter of fact the farm home of today is the real American home. The majority of farmers are well-informed, well-read men. The general diffusion of good literature reaches the farm home, and with this advantage over the city: the farmer can choose the reading both for himself and his children. He does not have to guard against the flood of "yellow journalism" and sensational story-papers that so often get into the hands of boys and girls in town.

Then, perhaps because country parents feel that the "schooling" is not all it should be, they take more interest in the education of their children. They read to them and talk with them, feeling that the real education is, after all, the education in the home. The father on the farm is the companion of his boys, not merely "the man who stays at our house on Sunday," as one small city boy defined the word "father." The mother on the farm has her children with her from babyhood. She can impress on their tender minds much that is good, and from the time the little one trots about after her intent on "helping mamma," is beginning to make him or her helpful and self-reliant. At the age when city children are often hardly out of the nurse's care the country child is riding the horses to water, driving home the cows, or raising the pet calf or lamb that is "all my own." When it comes to the higher education, you will find the sons and daughters of the American farmer holding their own with the child who has had all the advantages of "city schooling." *The American Agriculturist* has been collecting statistics on this very subject, and has discovered that, leaving out some of the large city colleges, over forty-five per cent of the college students come from farm homes—the homes that so many writers, who know nothing about the subject, tell us are homes only of endless drudgery and toil, homes that send the wives and mothers to insane asylums. *The*

Agriculturist says, speaking of the farmers' children in college, "In no other country are such results to be seen and it speaks greatly for the high hopes and aspirations of the farmers' sons and daughters." A writer in *The Outlook*, who has been visiting farm homes from New England to Minnesota, gives the result of his observations as follows: "For women as well as men the American farm gives the training in self-reliance and self-respect on which the development of true democracy rests." Speaking of girls home from college, but helping about the housework and in the dairy, he says:

"Here were girls who were being developed into the finest womanhood, under an education that made them self-reliant, able and willing to serve in the common things of life. Not only sound bodies and minds, but sound hearts, come from teaching like this. These girls seemed to me types of the American women that are to be when all shall realize that the best education is that which trains us to minister and not to be ministered unto."*

So much for American farm education as seen by an intelligent outsider. But I hear some one say, "If the American farm is as here represented, why do the boys leave the

* Charles B. Spahr, in *The Outlook*, November 4, 1899, in one of a series of articles on "America's Working People."

farm? I will answer it by another question, "Why should they not?" The merchant's son is not expected to be a merchant; the son of a professional man does not always choose his father's profession. The farmer's son has just as much right to try another line of business; but because he does so we hear the cry reiterated until people think it must be true: "There must be something wrong with farm life or the boys would not leave the farm." If all our farmer's sons stayed on the farm what would the world do for doctors, lawyers, editors, merchants, governors and presidents? I am too far out in the country to find available statistics on the subject, but I know that of the present congress forty per cent began life as boys on the farm, Speaker David J. Henderson heading the list.

I feel that I have only touched the subject of farm education, but perhaps enough has been said to prove that though our children on the farm may not receive the years of schooling that they would have had did we live in a city, still the education that fits them for the battle of life, that tends to make of them sturdy, self-reliant men and women, is the education they get on the American farm.

HOW A CLUB PAPER WAS WRITTEN.

BY JULIA B. ANTHONY.

"Girls, listen to the subject that uncomfortably bright Mrs. Ludlow has assigned me as a subject for the next Woman's Club meeting,—'Current Discussion on the Servant Problem!'" and Louise Vandewater dropped on the sofa, the picture of despair.

"Well, I should think there'd be lots to say about servants," said the Vassar Senior.

"Yes, if she'd only said 'Look into thy heart and write;' but current *discussion*, mind you."

"Oh, well," chimed in the Smith Freshman, "look into your Poole and write," whereat the Vassar girl laughed.

"I don't see anything funny in that," said Louise. "You girls are really quite insupportable since you went to college."

"You dear creature!" returned the Vassar girl, "you shan't quarrel with me. You've twice as much brain as I have. Mrs. Ludlow shows her cleverness by her selection. Do you suppose I could manage a house and four servants?"

"No, no," misquoted the Smith Freshman,

"John P.
Robinson he
Says they don't know everything in
Pokeepsaie."

"Nevertheless, Professor Salmon has written the best book on domestic service," retorted the Vassar Senior, with a withering look. "But, girls, wouldn't it be fun to go into the city tomorrow so that I can introduce you to this Poole of knowledge, named from a blessed man who, realizing that articles published in magazines were practically buried under a bushel, made an 'Index to Periodical Literature'? Later, fired by his generosity, librarians collaborated in the *Annual Literary Index*, which shows also who wrote anything about what."

"From which maidens of a certain 'female college' crib their original essays,"—and the saucy Smith girl fled the room.

The next morning found our four girls in the library of their choice, equipped with

paper, pencils and pads. Fortunately they were alone in the reference department, so that the Vassar Senior could discourse without fear and without reproach. "See, here are the Poole's Indexes. They extend from 1802-1892. In this latter year the A. L. A. (American Library Association), with Mr. Wm. I. Fletcher as editor, published an index to general literature, that is, to essays published collectively, book-chapters, society reports, etc. Since '92 the *Annual Literary Index* combines the two. You will notice that the index to books is printed in heavier type, in a separate alphabet."

"Suppose you want to find an article in a magazine only a month or so back?" asked the practical Louise.

"There is the *Cumulative Index*, published in Cleveland, and the *American Monthly Review of Reviews* gives an index in every number to articles published in the periodicals of the previous month. But here's the *Annual Literary Index* for '99. Let's look at 'Servant'—

'Servants and served. (M. E. Haweis.) *Contemp.* 75: 505 (Apr.) Same art. *Liv. Age* 221: 481. (My 20).

—The ever-present problem. *Outl.* 61: 481 (F. 25).

—Training school for. (M. H. Abel.) *Outl.* 63: 501. (O. 28).'

"Now there may be other references under another head. Let's think"—

"Domestic service?" suggested the Smith girl.

"Good! Yes.

'Domestic servant.

—A plea for the — *Macm.* 80: 254. (Ag.)

—Problem of and how to solve it. (A. Ogilvie.) *Westm.* 152: 116. (Jl.)

—Responsibility of employers. (M. R. Smith.) *Forum* 27: 678. (Ag.)

—Domestic economy. *Evolution in the Kitchen.* (J. A. Doughty.) *Chaut.* 28: 386. (Ja.)'

"Of course you see that the author's name is put down when known; that the names of magazines are abbreviated—there's a table in the front of each volume showing what magazines are indexed, with the abbreviations used; that the abbreviations for the months, Ag. for August, Ja. for January, etc., follow in parentheses the numbers which refer to volume and page. The above reference, in full, would read: 'Servants and served, by M. E. Haweis in the *Contemporary Review*, vol. 75, p. 505 (April); same article in *Littell's Living Age*, vol. 221, p. 481, May 20.' The day of the month is here given, since this is a weekly. Now here's your 'current discussion.' The first thing to do is to get the

theme of each article. We shall probably find that the discussion will fall under certain heads; these make the outline of your article. Suppose we begin with Mrs. Haweis, an efficient worker in the London parish of her husband, best known in America as the author of *Music and Morals*. She evidently had something to say, as her article is copied in *Littell's*. But don't be too sanguine about finding your material quickly. One usually has to look through four times as many articles as one uses. I hope you know how to skip. And one more caution. If you take notes, be sure to keep your references accurately, so as to be able to give chapter and verse for any statement or quotation you may make."

"But before we begin on Louise's theme," said the Smith girl, "show me how to find out who was secretary of the treasury under Pierce."

"What in the world for?"

"Oh, I'm reading Laurence Oliphant's autobiography, and there's the most dramatic description of the midnight signing of a treaty, but like all poets, he scorns historic details, and doesn't tell *what* treaty, nor the name of the secretary he describes so graphically."

They searched through several books unavailingly, till the librarian suggested "Lalor's Cyclopædia of Political Science, Political Economy and United States History."

"Under 'Cabinet,' do you suppose?"

"Might try."

"Um! 'Cabinet. See Administration.' Just so—well—here's Pierce—Secretary of the Treasury, William L. Marcy. I'm not much wiser."

"You look him up in Johnson's Cyclopædia while I get 'Larned's History for Ready Reference' and find out what treaty they were signing at that uncanny hour."

Johnson was easy, and after some turning of pages, Larned, under "U. S., A. D. 1854-1866," divulged the fact that it was the Canadian Reciprocity Treaty, and advised readers who wanted to know more to "See Tariff Legislation—U. S. and Canada."

"What a discouraging lot of blanks there seem to be in this index," said Louise.

"You must always consider a blank as part of the following title; thus,

"'China,

—Empress Regent of.

— — — and the Emperor Kwang Hsu,'

reads 'The Empress-Regent of China;' 'The Empress-Regent of China and the Emperor

Kwang Hsu.' Here's a similar case lower down the page,

"'Chinese—a paradox. The.

—in the U. S.

—exclusion laws, The farce of.'

The last title is to be read 'The farce of the Chinese exclusion laws in the U. S.'

"Before we put down this incomparable index I want to show you two more things for which it is useful. Here's the necrology for the year. See—Castelar died in '99 and here in the index for that year you find that fact noted with mention of the work for which he is celebrated. Thus:

"'Castelar, Emilio, b. Cadiz, Spain, S. 8. 1832; d. Murcia, Spain, My 25, '99. Politics; travel.'

Under the 'Index to Dates' you find, under 'Cuba,' for example, all the events of the Spanish-American war, so that you have practically an index to the newspaper articles of the year."

"And still they gazed and still the wonder grew
That one small head could carry all she knew,"

teased the Smith Freshman, but redeemed herself by her next proposition, unanimously accepted, that each should read as much as she could on the servant question and report results around the evening wood-fire.

In the evening when they gathered to compare notes, the morning reading was summed up and the theme of each paper was given. Mrs. Haweis's article was valuable as giving interesting statistics as to servants' board, lodging and wages, but treated mostly of the personal relation of "Servants and Served," with a special plea for that "right-mindedness which often saves a situation." The *Macmillan Magazine* paper attempted to account for the prevailing discontent of servants and the discomfiture of householders. The *Forum* traced the history of the reciprocal responsibility of servants and masters, and so on through the list. One of the readers had spent the time in reading in Miss Salmon's book on "Domestic Service." When each had contributed her quota, the united wisdom of all resulted in the following outline:

RECENT DISCUSSION ON THE SERVANT PROBLEM.

A. Introduction.

I. Importance of the problem.

a. From the point of view of economics.

1. According to census of 1890 one and a half millions of persons in the United States are engaged in domestic service, and \$3,000,000 is spent annually for wages of domestic workers. Average length of service one and a half years. (Salmon, Lucy M.: *Domestic Service*. N. Y., 1897.)

b. As concerns the physical and moral health of the nation.

1. We entrust our furniture, clothing, food, children, lives, to the honesty and faithfulness of the domestic servant.

B. Discussion falls under three heads, concerning itself with

I. The personal relations between employers and employed.

a. Content.

1. Anecdotal, varying from gossip of the sewing society order to a selection of facts showing typical conditions.

2. Hortatory, enforcing the duties of mistress and maid.

b. Value of this form of discussion.

1. As material for more scholarly generalizations.

2. Reaches a class that would not relish more abstract treatment.

3. The human element appeals directly and easily to the conscience of employers.

II. History of domestic service.

a. Its origin in the serfdom of the feudal ages.

b. Outlines of changes to the present time, chiefly in the United States.

1. In colonial times service performed by "Redemptionists," Indians and Negroes.

2. From the Revolution to the Civil war—by native American women, "help"—"The golden era of domestic coöperation." (*Forum* 27: 678.)

3. Since Civil war. a. Foreign labor. b. Specialized labor.

III. Economics of domestic service.

a. Why omitted from discussion of labor and capital.

1. Does not involve investment of capital.

2. Workers do not combine.

3. Products are transient.

b. Relation of domestic service to trades-unions.

c. Domestic service as affected by the spirit of the age.

1. Desire for change.

2. Desire for advancement.

3. Tendency to specialization.

C. Attempts to solve the problem.

I. First necessity to get at the root of the trouble.

a. From servants' point of view.

1. Miss Salmon's diagnosis. (Salmon, Lucy M.: *Domestic Service*. N. Y., 1897. p. 204.)

b. From employer's point of view.

1. No fraternity among employers.

II. Recent attempts.

a. Coöperative housekeeping.

b. Limited hours of service.

c. Employment of specialists for different departments of housework.

d. Coöperation between mistress and maid in saving in the running expenses of the household.

D. Conclusion.

I. Necessity of watching the discussion of the problem.

a. In every other profession the successful practitioner knows the literature of his subject. Why not in this?

"Looks like pretty dry bones," sighed Louise.

"Yes, my dear, but they are not the bones after the feast. Decide which points you wish to make the most prominent, elaborate them in luminous exposition, enlivened by witty illustration, and I envy the Woman's Club its intellectual banquet."



The RIVALRY of NATIONS

WORLD POLITICS OF TODAY

By Edwin A. Start

CHAPTER I.

INTRODUCTION.

"The old order changeth, yielding place to new,
And God fulfils Himself in many ways,
Lest one good custom should corrupt the world."

— Tennyson: "The Passing of Arthur."

*Required Reading
for the Chautau-
qua Literary and
Scientific Circle.*



THE turning of a century mark has no significance, of itself, in human history, but the thoughtful watcher of events at the present time can hardly avoid the conclusion that we are in the midst of the crisis of great movements that will profoundly affect the future of the race. We are facing problems of statecraft more complex and difficult than have been met at any earlier period along the path of history. They are not local, but world problems; not to be settled by the action of a single people, by a European concert, or a Monroe doctrine. They demand a consensus of mankind. It is a common thing to belittle the times in which we live, to regard them as commonplace and unimportant in the great current of history, simply because we lack the perspective to measure the true value of events. What the romancer of the future may think of the later nineteenth and early twentieth century we cannot know. Fashions in romances change too rapidly. It will not have the gorgeous coloring that gives perennial charm to the romances of Dumas, or the glow of the old-time chivalry that lives eternal in Scott, but it is sure to be recognized as a great historic cycle; and it may be that even for romance the strenuous industrial life of today, with its sharp contrasts of shadow and sunshine, war and peace, and the great world movements that seem to go on with the resistless fatality of the tides, will be found full of a dramatic human interest that no medieval or colonial romance can surpass.

Historical importance of the end of this century.

The nineteenth century is closing amid wars and rumors of wars involving the gravest national and international consequences. Self-confident and ambitious, the new national democracies join those monarchs who still retain a semblance of ancient monarchical power in sending their challenges ringing down the lists; and the Christian philosopher must listen with very attentive ear if he would catch the faint and far-off echo that returns the aggressive challenge softened into the promise of the world democracy yet to be, of the time when the strife and rivalry of nations shall bring them into a greater harmony and there shall be realized in some way the ideal of "the parliament of man, the federation of the world." The enterprise of commerce, missionary zeal, and the ambition of great peoples have left no habitable corner of the globe unknown and very little territory, comparatively speaking, not organized or influenced by civilization. Old historic questions, like that of the relations between Europe and Asia, assume new and acute forms, as a result of the closer contact brought about by modern means of communication. The great state of the New World, like a young giant with sinews and staying power yet untested, is forced, by the same potent changes in material conditions, out of its traditional non-participation and into the circle of the great powers and active forces in world affairs. And while there is this external rivalry among the nations, each one of them is

Wars and perhaps a promise of peace.

The industrial
democracy.

feeling the stirring of a new life within — the life of the new industrial democracy, propounding new social problems, restless, ambitious, sometimes pessimistic, sometimes hopeful, but always discontented with old inequalities, always skeptical of the old social and political philosophy upon which they rest. The new democracy perforce organizes itself by nationalities and finds its first expression through the nation, but the ultimate word of the new social thought is to the world, not to the nation, and the growth of democracy therefore stimulates at once the rivalry of nations and the demand for universal peace.

Nineteenth-century
forces.

Various as the phases of nineteenth-century life have been, those which have affected the currents of the world's life will be found to fall into a very few categories, consideration of which will materially assist in an understanding of the great problems to which the people of this and the coming generation are called upon to address themselves. At the root

Democracy.

of all that is most significant in world movements of the present day, national or international, is the social and political development of democracy, but we can best reach an understanding of its character and possibilities through its manifestations. Of these, that which carries most meaning and is likewise most prominent at present to the general observer

National expansion.

is the expansion of the greater states, the tendency of those peoples that have found their institutions working successfully to extend as far as possible the sway of those institutions and the opportunities that may accrue to themselves under them. This tendency is no less conspicuous

Its strength and
weakness.

in the great modern democracies than in the ancient despotic monarchies, though the cause is widely different. As in the days of the rise of Christianity to power, malice and cruelty and persecution sheltered themselves under the broad folds of the banner of Christ, so today the expansion of the nations is made the opportunity for avarice and tyranny and ambition, all these outcasts finding asylum and encouragement in the roomy mansions of manifest destiny. But the truth of Christianity was not lessened

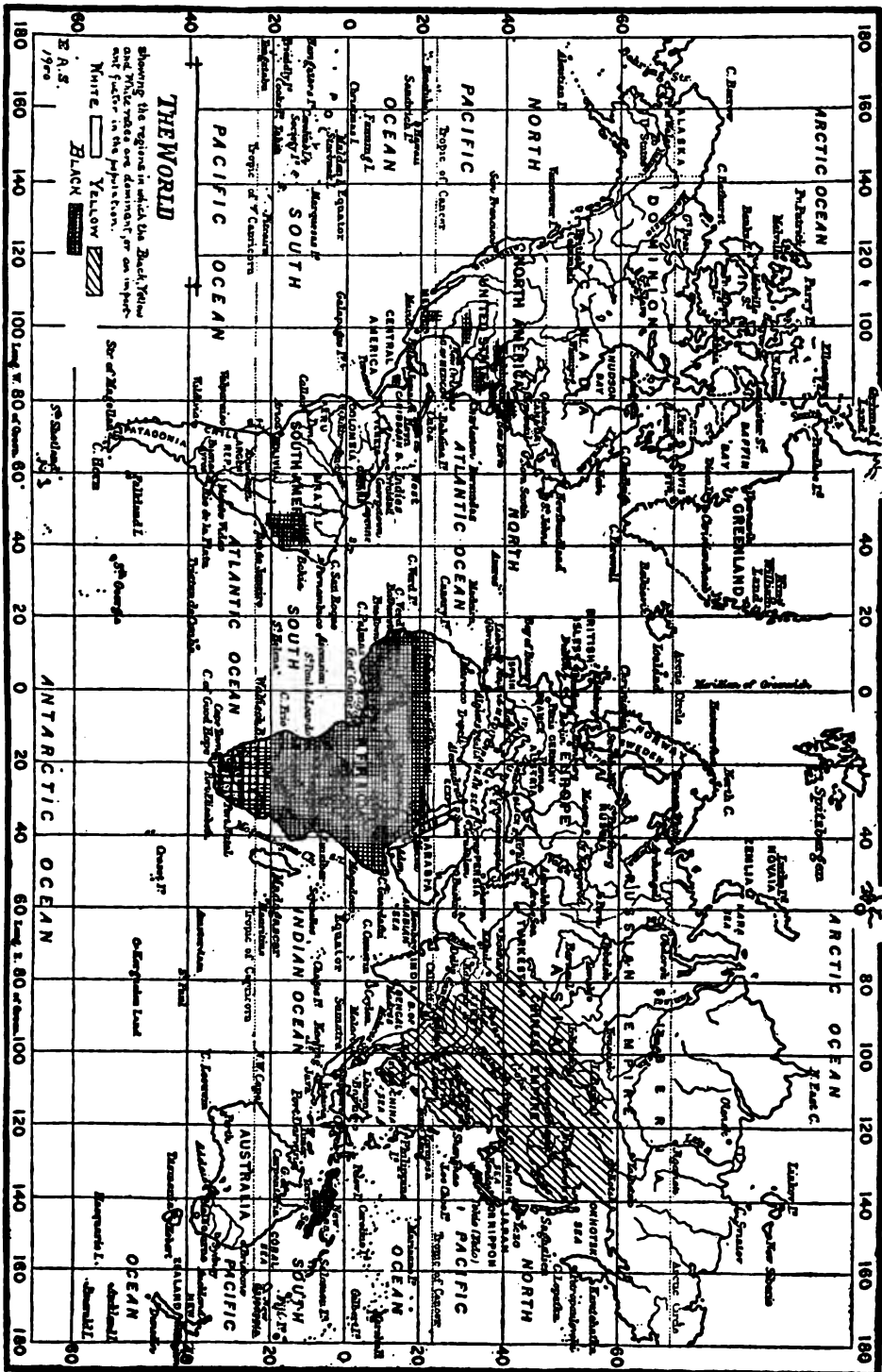
Abuses hinder
progress.

nor its progress materially retarded by this abuse of the Christian name; nor is the necessity that civilization should be carried onward by the peoples best fitted for its advancement, by reason of the tested quality of their work, in the least degree militated against by the abuses that are always the concomitants of power. These abuses are the more to be regretted because of the injury they do to the cause of legitimate progress, but they only prove that humanity, even in its highest manifestations, is far from perfect. They do not prove, nor can they, that the higher is not better than the lower, even though it be not the highest attainable. They do not prove that it is right that a considerable portion

Battle the ultimate
appeal.

of the earth should be permitted to remain in the bonds of barbarism or savagery because its people are so bound to their idols that they will not voluntarily give them up. Progress cannot always await the consent of its beneficiaries. The child or the incompetent does not recognize what is best for himself, and it must be forced upon him by the superior intelligence. This principle is simple; the difficulty, as with so many good principles, is found in determining the circumstances under which it can justly be applied. Here good men and wise men may differ. Unfortunately there is no court of appeal in affairs between peoples. The

"higher law" is subject to individual interpretation and the ultimate appeal among nations is still, as among individuals in the middle ages, to the wager of battle. But whatever may be the principles or theories of the individual upon the duties of nations, there must be recognized the plain fact of the age — an unparalleled reaching out for dominion or influence on the part, not of one especially grasping power, but of every great power of the western world that has its internal affairs in a well-ordered condition and resources sufficient to enable it to operate outside the borders of its immediate territory. Is this an epidemic outbreak of mere vulgar ambition, or is it a part of one of those movements that are



as inevitable in the history of humanity as the changes of the great geologic cycles have been in the history of the earth? This is not a question to be answered recklessly in partisan heat, or out of merely sentimental humanitarianism. Some considerations that may aid in framing an answer will form a part of the following chapters.

Achievements of expansion.

National expansion has built up a fresh and vigorous Anglo-Saxon state at the antipodes. It has resulted in the exploitation of Africa, until the dark continent is becoming known from end to end and its vast area, with yet unmeasured resources, is parceled out among the great powers of Europe into actual colonial possessions or protectorates. Most important of all has been the opening of the Far East, with its ancient semi-barbaric civilizations, so long a mystery to the western world. Statecraft has followed with some hesitation, as entering an untried field, where the enterprise of the trader and the zeal of the missionary have led the way. The problem of China has been with Europe, in some form, for eight centuries, but the accidental discovery of Columbus turned the attention of Europe for awhile, and the star of empire continued its westward course. At last it has completed its orbit in the farther Pacific. The international issues of five hundred years are being brought to a focus in the ancient land, sought by those fifteenth-century navigators who in the search unwittingly brought to light that New World which seems destined, in spite of its own reluctance, to play an important part in solving the problems of the Old.

Sources of expansion tendencies.

National expansion may come from one of two sources — the necessities or ambition of an autocratic monarch, or the necessities or ambition of a growing democracy seeking new outlets for its energies. At the present time Russia represents the first class; England, Germany, France, Italy, and the United States the second. Modern expansion is therefore mainly democratic in its source, and democracy seeks expansion because expansion is primarily commercial, commerce rests upon industry, and the life of the democracy is industrial. There is another source of the tendency of democracy toward expansion, often lost sight of amid the patent evidences of self-seeking ambition. Love of our fellow man is not a lost passion. Under the rude and boisterous manifestations of the democratic spirit there is something that responds to the heart-beat of the world. The people who have won a measure of liberty for themselves wish to pass it along to others; those who have issued from barbarian darkness wish that others whom they have left behind them may share the light. This chivalrous spirit is the saving grace of national expansion, the crown of democracy, the hope of the world. In proportion as it overcomes the brutal spirit of conquest and the selfish spirit of avarice, will the expansion of the great civilized nations work for the salvation of the world. In proportion as it is overcome by these inhuman spirits will it develop a crushing imperialism, carrying with it the seeds of its own downfall. History presents abundant lessons for the hour that he who runs may read. National expansion may be the means of building a world civilization that shall be noble and enduring; or of shattering the whole fabric on which it rests. The way to either issue is plain and well marked.

Monarchic and democratic.

Chivalrous spirit of expansion.

Opening of the Far East.

Coincident with the movement for national expansion, and destined, as events are daily proving, to play a large part in its problems and their solution, is the opening of the Far East, the home of the great yellow race. Until the present generation the history of human progress has been the history of the western world, but now the East and West have come into permanent contact, and the issue between them — two giant-opposing forces, the one of motion, the other of inertness — is the great question of the hour. The present generation has seen the creation in the farthest East of a vital political force by the development of Japan from a primitive feudal state into a constitutional parliamentary monarchy, founded on western ideas of liberty and law. China, still wrapped in its unprogressive,

stolid semi-civilization, has been pried open, and the friends of the old order are fighting with desperation those who would lead China in the footsteps of Japan. The expanding West has reached this inert mass and attacked it on all sides, with commerce, religion and politics. The end is still far to see.

In these world changes the silent but effective force underlying every external movement has been the industrial transformation of the last fifty years. Inventions and discoveries in countless numbers have vastly complicated modern life. The railway and the telegraph, the steamship and the cable, have bound the lands and the seas together. Jules Verne's "Tour of the World in Eighty Days" has become out of date in the rapid improvement of means of transportation. Our age lives fast and hard because the means are given to it and themselves force it onward. This material development most profoundly affects society. It is no longer the priest, the warrior, or the decorated name that is the living force of society. The industrial worker has grown in numbers, importance, and a sense of power, until kings must reckon with the people or the people will act for themselves. Theories of personal liberty and free government came to us from the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. Their practical application in democratic government is, except in the United States, a creation of the nineteenth century.

The industrial revolution.

But democracy is not wholly or even largely an outgrowth of new industrial conditions. It is a political force as old as human society — the mightiest political force of all ages. It comes from the spirit of liberty and justice inherent in the individual man. The industrial transformation of the last half century simply gave it a new impulse. Unrestrained, the same spirit causes the dominance of brute force, but when each man seeks to be a master, all must be masters, and that means coöperative action, democracy. The same lesson must be learned by the nations. When each accumulates its power for the struggle for supremacy it is inevitable that for all but one there can be only the alternatives of subjection or coöperative action, federation. That is the ultimate lesson which must be learned from the rivalry of the nations.

Democracy as a distinct political force.

The whole course of history has turned upon the struggles of the people for self-realization, at first in little things, then in greater ones, finally for participation in the control of themselves and others. Step by step, often along blood-stained ways, the goal has been approached. In the last century the desirability of good government was recognized, but not the rights of the people. The reform was a gift from above, or rather a loan, for it could be taken back at pleasure. In the French Revolution and its long train of consequences this misapplication of theories had a terrible rebuke, but the French Revolution gave currency to ideas of democracy little better than the feudalism it overthrew. The various revolutions of the nineteenth century have worked upward, and forced from the unwilling holders of privilege and prerogative a slow recognition of the essential principle of democracy, the common right of men to control their own destiny by the best available means, with due regard to the common rights in which they share.

Growth of the democratic idea.

The interplay of these forces has produced the problems whose magnitude has startled the world in these closing months of a wonderful century, and which are going over to the twentieth century still unsolved. Within all the progressive states the advancing democracy and new industrial conditions have been working radical changes in social and political life. Growing industrial activity produces an expanding commerce, for which modern facilities offer highways hitherto undreamed. This commerce penetrates the remotest corners of the earth, and protection for its agents necessarily follows in its train. This brings the highly organized civilizations into contact with barbarism, or more backward civilization. Settlements are made in unoccupied or barbarous regions; a colony is

Interplay of complex forces.

Democracy the stimulus to national expansion.

established; a movement of expansion has begun. So far the story is a simple one; the possible results are complex and far-reaching. From them the world problems of today arise. As the democratic spirit is the soundest basis for the growth of the idea of nationality, so is it the strongest stimulus to national expansion. If the pride of one ruler, who can say "I am the state," stimulates a desire for extended dominion, how much stronger will be the impulse when millions of men, who are able to say "We are the state," united by a strong sense of national unity, look out upon the world and see its vast opportunities urging them on in the name of a selfish desire for gain, of pride of possession, or of that higher ambition to extend the "sphere of influence" of progressive ideas, of education, of a more spiritual religion, of all the blessings of liberty and law that the restless, outreaching, onward-moving West has won through centuries of painful struggle.

To the field of the world, in which all these powerful forces are actively at work, the student of affairs must address himself. In this year of grace and perplexity the recent history and present problems of no great state can be studied by themselves without a one-sided view being obtained. No nation liveth to itself. Its affairs, like those of individuals, are inextricably interwoven with the affairs of others. The international politics of yesterday are national politics today, and the national politics of yesterday are world politics today.

CHAPTER II.

MID-CENTURY POLITICS IN EUROPE.

Nationality's struggle for existence.

The middle of the nineteenth century found the principle of nationality fighting for its life in Europe. Even across the Atlantic the great state of the western hemisphere was engaging in its struggle for national self-preservation. The development of the principle of nationality has been the chief political concern of the western world during the century. Combining with certain economic and social forces it has produced the tendency toward national expansion, or national imperialism, as it is sometimes termed, which is striking the dominant note in present international relations. It is therefore worth while to consider briefly this mid-century Europe in which certain forces common to the various European states culminated and opened the way for the new movements of the present period.

By the principle of nationality in politics is meant that principle which dictates the complete harmonious organization of political states within their natural geographical boundaries, comprehending populations reasonably homogeneous in language, traditions, and aims. Mankind has been slow in coming to a realization of the importance of this principle, which really implies only the utilization in politics of the simplest facts of human association, but at present the perfected national state is recognized as the highest practicable form of political organization. "Nationality," said the Württemberger, Pfizer, when the few nationalist patriots of Germany were engaging in the seemingly hopeless effort to bring about German unity,— "nationality is the first condition of humanity, as the body is of the soul;" by which he meant that organized society must have its activity within a definite corporate existence, self-sufficient for its own life, and subject to relations with other similar bodies. There is a personality in the nation which must have its embodiment. In pursuance

What nationality is.



¹ For an able scientific discussion of this principle see Burgess, "Political Science and Comparative Constitutional Law," Vol. I., Book I.; also Bluntschli, "Theory of the State," Book II., chaps. I.-IV.

of the same thought the great Swiss publicist, Bluntschli, says of the national state as a moral and spiritual organism: "History ascribes to the state a personality which, having spirit and body, possesses and manifests a will of its own. . . . The whole great thought of the Fatherland and love of country would be inconceivable if the state did not possess this high moral and personal character." While the philosopher holds always before him the ideal of a world state, no political organization beyond the national state has yet been put upon a workable basis. That a growing solidarity of mankind is to be the outcome of the inevitable expansion of great national states seems clear from a study of the sources, means and aims of their present rivalry. The perfect, healthy development of the national state is the first step toward the federation of the world.

Nature has set apart upon her great land masses certain divisions which seem to have been destined for the homes of distinct nationalities. The best example of this in Europe is the Spanish peninsula. Such in remote antiquity was the Nile valley. In proportion as the natural boundaries are distinct is cause for friction with neighboring states removed. The long enmity of France and Germany is due in great measure to the imperfect boundary delimitation which has made Alsace-Lorraine debatable ground for centuries. It should be said, however, that modern means of inter-communication are rapidly effacing what under more primitive conditions were effective national boundaries, and thus tend, while bringing the peoples nearer together, to make their rivalries more intense.

Natural political
unities.

The primary condition of the development of national spirit is the growth of democracy. The sense of nationality, of common interests and aims on the part of a people, comes from their self-realization. Only as personal liberty becomes embodied in the fundamental law of the state, as privilege and prerogative disappear, and the body of the people have a conscious share in the responsibility of government is a true national sense possible. The importance of the idea of nationality in the nineteenth century implies, therefore, a correspondingly important period in the growth of democracy, the determining social force of modern times. While every step in the political history of the race had been a step toward the fuller realization of democratic ideals, it was the French Revolution that organized a new democracy as an active force in Europe. It made its propaganda against feudal society and monarchical tyranny with all the cynical *sang froid* and the passionate idealism and unwisdom that were the contradictory characteristics of the eighteenth century. The Napoleonic empire did not kill the new democracy; it made an alliance with it. Napoleon availed himself of the new national democracy of France to assail and outrage the growing sense of nationality in the rest of Europe. He thereby provoked the opposition of irresistible forces that brought about his downfall. He was too much a visionary fatalist, too little a political philosopher. Although the French people, intolerant of failure in their leaders, cast off Napoleon, the alliance of revolutionary democracy with upstart imperialism had produced throughout Europe a reaction on the part of princes and nobility who had felt their privilege and prerogative slipping away before the zealous propaganda, which, beginning with constitutionalism, republicanism, liberty, equality and fraternity, was finally utilized in the apotheosis of Napoleon, the democratic emperor, who dreamed of world empire. In justice to much of the honest conservatism of the earlier half of the century, it is to be said that there was reason for distrust. The revolutionary idea of democracy was not a sound or a safe one, as was shown by the use to which it was put by Napoleon I., and later by Napoleon III. French political science

Nationality and
democracy.

The revolutionary
democracy.



Reconstruction of Europe.

has never realized a sound democracy, and has had too much influence, even in England, where democracy is much better understood, and in the United States, where it has had its highest development. The reconstruction of Europe in 1814-1815 was, therefore, a reactionary one which attempted an impossible divorce of nationalism and democracy; but the twenty-five years of storm and stress through which the continent had passed had brought changes, unmeant by those who caused them, not understood by those who experienced them. The old order could not be permanently restored because these changes were along normal lines of social development. This the conservative diplomats who met at Vienna and followed the sinister guidance of Metternich did not comprehend. They sought to restore the old régime, to guard the legitimist princes, to restore to the classes their ancient privileges, and by binding treaties to prevent any further disturbance. The settlement thus effected was intended to be permanent and the great powers¹ became its guarantors, the balance of power being nicely adjusted between them.

Peace policy of the restoration concert.

For nearly forty years the European concert maintained its work, preventing war and suppressing every progressive movement with rigorous severity; for the spirits of democracy and nationality had been aroused, and, as they appealed to fundamental human instincts, they were not to be destroyed, but bided their time. A liberal party, strong in purpose and intellectual force, and always growing numerically, was seeking in every European state except Russia for more progressive and more democratic forms of government. The reactionaries, led by statesmen who "never learn anything, and never forget anything," opposed liberalism and democracy in behalf of aristocracy and absolutism, and nationalism in behalf of the artificial state system of the old monarchies.

Napoleon's rude disturbance of the map of Europe tended, when his own imperial schemes were eliminated, toward an adjustment of states much nearer the sound principle of nationality than the old monarchies had been. He had destroyed the titular headship of Austria by striking down the Holy Roman Empire. He had reduced other states to their national boundaries. Above all, by consolidating the petty German states into a more manageable number² he had done much to prepare for German unity, the organization of a strong state in central Europe, where the disorganized body of irresponsible principalities had hitherto made a center of disturbance in continental politics.

Nineteenth-century revolutions.

The Restoration statesmen of Europe trod in masterful fashion upon ground that was trembling from volcanic forces, bearing themselves as though the political world still swung in its seventeenth- or eighteenth-century orbit. The revolutionary period of 1830 came and brought parliamentary reform in England, the July monarchy in France, the independence of Belgium; elsewhere only repression. The great forces worked on, and in 1848 another general revolutionary movement spread through Europe. In Italy it broke forth in the struggle which after more than twenty years brought Italian unity and independence; in France its first fruit was the bastard republic of President Louis Napoleon, which shrewd and conscienceless manipulation soon transformed into the Second Empire—the empire of Napoleon the Little. In Germany it forced Frederic William IV. of Prussia to adopt the tenets of the constitutional nationalists of Germany, and prepared the way for the new Germany of William I. and Bismarck. It therefore marked a distinct advance for liberalism in Germany, although a long and thorny path was to be traversed before the goal was reached. There, and even in Austria, it broke the power of Metternich, but otherwise Austria was little

Effects throughout Europe.

¹ England, France, Russia, Austria, and Prussia.

² Over three hundred in the eighteenth century, reduced by the Napoleonic consolidation to thirty-eight.

affected by it. The Hungarian national revolt was put down, its leader, Kossuth, became an exile, and Austria temporarily triumphed in Italy. In all these conflicts with the great progressive forces the final argument of the controlling conservatism was bullets and bayonets; but in spite of repression, in spite of confusion and disorder, the year 1850 opened upon a Europe distinctly changed. Prescient statesmanship might have seen in 1848 the beginning of the end of the narrow and indolent politics of 1815, but European statesmen had deliberately masked their vision, while new complications vexed the old issues. Russian ambition, the policy of Napoleon III., and English interests in the Orient destroyed the old programs and made new adjustments inevitable. Close upon the revolutionary excitement the Eastern question assumed an acute phase.

The first wedge was driven into the concert of the powers when the reforms of 1830-32 committed England and France to a progressive parliamentary policy, while the three Eastern powers remained wedded to absolutism. The West now stood for liberalism, the East for conservative reaction. In 1848 the Second Republic brought into power in France Louis Napoleon, republican for convenience, imperialist by conviction, but an imperialist of good intentions and a sympathizer with nationalism, whose hold upon the throne, which he seized in 1852, was so insecure that he was compelled to pursue a policy flattering at once to French vanity and his own, and worthy of the Napoleonic name.

A discordant concert.

Nicolas I., who had been seeking for years a favorable opportunity for pressing Russian designs on Turkey, thought he saw that opportunity in 1853. Twenty-five years before, by its support of the Greeks in their struggle for independence, England had come into collision with Russia at the crucial point of European politics. Nicolas now hoped, however, to detach England from France, and, secure of the support or indifference of eastern Europe, to be able to carry out his designs. His ideas were clearly set forth in the remarkable interview of January, 1853, with the English ambassador, Sir Hamilton Seymour. The most famous passage in this interview, the plain declaration of the Tsar in regard to Turkey, throws a flood of light on the Russian policy, which was, after all, extremely simple:

Russian designs.

The scheme of Nicolas I.

"We have a sick man on our hands and must prepare for his demise. As long as Russia and England are in accord, I do not fear the rest of Europe. I have not inherited the policy of Catherine II., for my empire is sufficiently vast; but there are many millions of Christian subjects whose interests I must preserve. I will therefore occupy Constantinople as a gage for the future, and England may take Egypt and Crete."

England did not take the bait so frankly offered. As one cause after another for friction arose, it became perfectly clear that France and England would act together, supporting Turkey against Russia. The principles that had governed the action of the powers since 1815 were thrown to the winds. The claim of Russia to a right of interference in Turkish affairs as the natural guardian of Christians in the Turkish empire amounted to a denial of the sovereignty of the Turkish government. Acting under the guidance of Stratford Canning, England's able minister at Constantinople, the Sultan refused the arrogant demands of the Tsar. Nicolas by deserting so radically the policy which had been given a certain sanctity by the powers, turned them against him. Nevertheless he pressed on and opened the war with Turkey. France and England went to Turkey's aid; Austria occupied a threatening position on the Danube, although remaining neutral. The Russian advance was checked. Upon the immediate points at issue Nicolas was apparently prepared to yield to the combination against him, and the diplomats labored to bring about a settlement, but to no purpose. The Crimean war opened upon issues deliberately forced—a war without occasion, but arising from deep

Russian attack upon Turkey.

causes; having no direct issue, yet attended with momentous results. Professor Andrews is undoubtedly right when he says:

The Crimean war.

"It was, in fact, a war which found its inspiration in the irreconcilable hostility between the liberalism of the West and the despotism of the East, a war for an idea, as it was called, a war bound up with events dating from the French Revolution."⁵

The liberal western powers were determined to humiliate the eastern powers for their part in checking the work of the revolution of 1848. The Crimean peninsula, Russia's strongly fortified military and naval depot on the Black Sea, was made the object of attack. The war was fought out in this limited area, with determined obstinacy, but without malice or bitterness. Austria, her affairs directed by Count Buol-Schauenstein, the weak successor of Schwarzenberg, attempted, in the diplomatic complication of the period, a shifting policy which lost her the respect of the powers and her leadership in European affairs. On the other hand, the minor kingdom of Sardinia, on which the hope of a united Italy depended, guided by the bold hand of Cavour, joined France and England, participated in the work of the war, and thereby won powerful friends, a place among the powers, and scored against her rival and oppressor, Austria. These were the most significant consequences of the war, and they were entirely independent of the conditions which gave rise to it.

Congress of Paris,
1856.

In the spring of 1856 the Congress of Paris, made up of plenipotentiaries of France, England, Russia, Austria, Turkey, Sardinia, and later of Prussia, arranged the treaty which reestablished peace. It guaranteed the integrity of the Ottoman Empire, the Sultan on his part promising internal reforms. It opened the Danube to navigation under an international commission; neutralized the Black Sea; and made Moldavia and Wallachia, which had been tributary states of Turkey, independent for internal affairs. The congress then united in the Declaration of Paris, abolishing privateering, making a neutral flag protect all goods other than contraband, and neutral goods exempt from capture even under an enemy's flag, and requiring a blockade to be effective. By the guarantee of the integrity of the Ottoman Empire, and the renunciation of any right of intervention in its affairs, the Christian powers of Europe stultified themselves and opened the way for that long train of abuses by the Ottoman government, which has made the Eastern question perennial. The policy was begun of creating small protected states in the Balkan region and on the lower Danube, as checks upon Turkey. The nationalist tendencies of these peoples thus received recognition.

Consequences of the
Crimean war.

The consequences of the war as affecting the great powers are especially interesting. The war was forced, as has been said, to humiliate Russia. That power was, indeed, checked in its advance on Constantinople, and its ceaseless activity was turned into new channels, but neither its strength nor its influence in European affairs was impaired. It emerged from the struggle with a settled dislike of England, whose determination at a critical moment had forced Russia's position. In pursuance of the humiliation of Russia, the Ottoman Empire had received guarantees of non-interference which astute Oriental diplomacy used skillfully in later years. This was the gigantic blunder of the whole episode. Out of the autonomy of Moldavia and Wallachia grew Roumania, placed as a buffer state on the lower Danube, where Austrian and Russian interests clashed. England was bound more fully to the pursuance of an Eastern policy, the ambition of Louis Napoleon was gratified by making France for the moment a dominant force in European affairs, and Sardinia, by her timely assistance of the allies, obtained the recognition which gave her a seat at the council board of Europe, and an opportunity to make her plea for Italian nationality heard. At the same time, Austria, the arch-enemy of German and Italian nationality, was discredited and weakened as never before.

⁵ "Historical Development of Modern Europe," Vol. II., p. 70.

Thus strange and unnecessary as it was in its inception, futile as it seemed to be in direct results, the Crimean war and the Paris Congress marked a distinct and important change in European politics. It served notice to the world that the old policies and issues of 1815 were dead or must be run in new molds; it gave a new direction to Russian and English policy, and a distinct impulse and opportunity to the national idea, preparing for the two most notable political developments of the next twenty years, the national unity of Italy, and the founding of the new unified German Empire. It is a starting-point from which the recent development of European states and the growth of present problems can well be traced.

Changes in
European politics.

CHAPTER III.

DEMOCRATIC ENGLAND.

It was a changed and changing England of which Victoria became the titular head in 1837, and while the throne gained in moral strength by her accession, the country improved in morals under the influence of example from the source which the English masses so profoundly respect. The long parliamentary campaign that culminated in the Reform Act of 1832 had been fought over a political issue and won by a union of classes, but while this political battle was waging social and economic forces had been modifying materially the structure of English society.

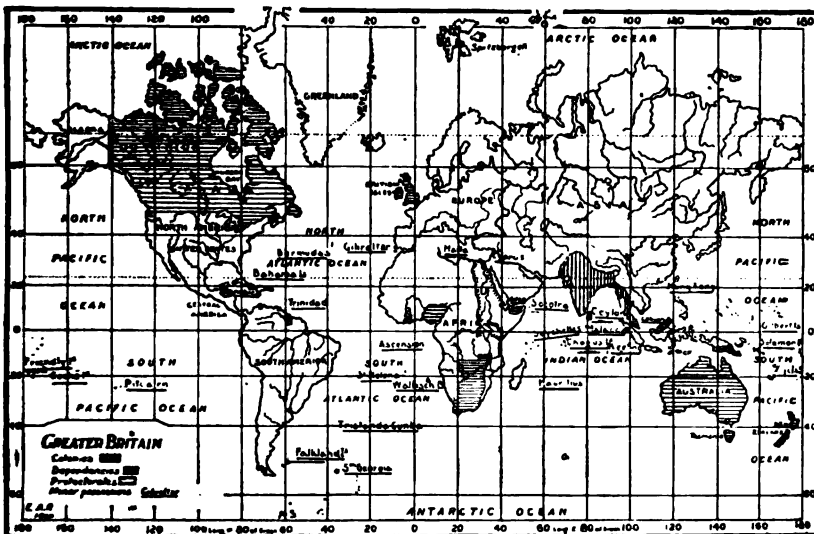
The transformation
of England.

In the middle of the eighteenth century England was essentially a rural country,¹ divided into small farms, on which primitive methods of agriculture were in use. The farmer was one with his laborers, hardly above them in education or social position. Manufactures were carried on in a similarly primitive manner. There were no large factories; and there was no unbridged chasm between master and workman, except that drawn by the law, which retained many relics of medieval restrictions upon industry and trade and discriminated sharply in favor of the master.

Eighteenth-century
England.



¹ For a good brief account of the old and the new industrial England see Arnold Toynbee, "Lectures on the Industrial Revolution.— Industry and Democracy," pp. 178–202.

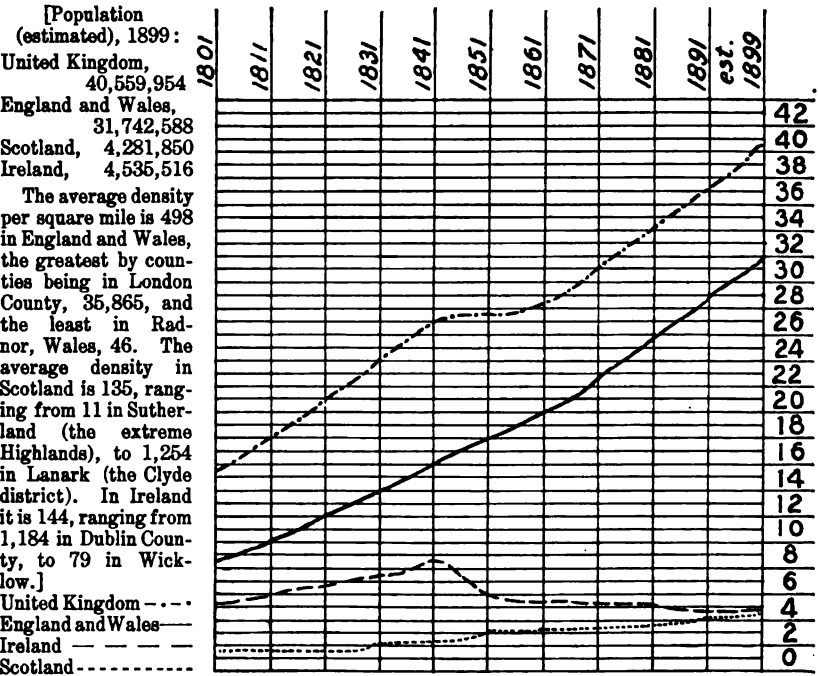


The relations of employer and employed were likely to be very close and friendly, such as are still found in some ancient German towns where families have been in the employ of certain houses for centuries and have inherited a reciprocal friendship and loyalty. In this older England transportation was difficult. Even main roads were abominable and at certain seasons well-nigh impassable. Adam Smith tells us that it took three weeks to move four tons of freight from London to Edinburgh in a broad-wheeled wagon with eight horses and two men. Under such conditions large industrial combinations were impossible and great aggregations of capital were unnecessary.

Changes wrought by machinery.

The rapid introduction of machinery after 1760 changed all this. In 1776 Adam Smith published "The Wealth of Nations," an earnest appeal for freedom of industry and trade, and gave rise to a new school of

THE MOVEMENT OF POPULATION IN THE UNITED KINGDOM SINCE 1801.



economic thought. The use of costly machinery required concentration in factories, and necessitated great and increasing capitalization. Two new social classes were created, the wealthy employers and the great mass of wage-earners, and between the two there was a great gulf fixed. The same changes had modified agricultural conditions, consolidating the small farms into large estates, carried on with equipment demanding large capital, and doing away with the body of small peasant proprietors. Thus distant impersonal relations took the place of the old personal ones, and the oppressive labor laws, becoming increasingly obnoxious under the new régime, speedily developed a sullen hostility full of danger to both classes. A new movement was likewise given to population. The people moved into the new factory towns, which rapidly became large cities—crowded, unattractive, unsanitary.³

Factory town population.

³In 1811 out of a population of 10,000,000, but 1,850,000 was urban; in 1851 the proportion had increased to 6,000,000 out of a total of 17,000,000. In 1891 out of a population of 29,001,018 in England and Wales, 17,826,347, or 61.5 per cent, was gathered in 358 towns of over 10,000 inhabitants. In 1881 there were but 303 such towns, with 56.3 per cent of the population. The significance of these figures in the expansion of England will be discussed elsewhere.



REGENT STREET,
LONDON.

Seldom have such startling social changes taken place in so brief a period. It does not surprise us, in view of these facts, that social readjustment furnishes the key to the internal history of England for the last fifty years. The Reform Act of 1832 had been secured by the coöperation of the well-to-do middle class and the laboring masses. When it was secured the former were satisfied and ready to put the brakes on against further reform. Their will was represented by the Whig statesmen of the old school who were in control of the government during the greater part of thirty years. Of these statesmen Lord Palmerston, who dominated English politics until his death in 1865, was the type. His foreign policy was that of the England whose armies had overthrown Napoleon, whose fleets had won the dominion of the seas, and which, for these achievements, held a place of power in the European concert. His program was the maintenance of the *status quo* in domestic affairs, which he regarded as sufficiently reformed, and a spirited foreign policy.

Social readjustment

Palmerston.

Steadily opposing this domestic policy were the laboring masses, who found when the fight was done that they had gained little in 1832. The apportionment of parliamentary seats was more equitably adjusted, the suffrage was extended, but parliament remained in the hands of privileged classes. The new moneyed middle class now participated in the government with the old political aristocracy; that was all. These conditions produced a popular agitation for betterment by the only apparent means — the control of law through the ballot. The ills were economic and social, but the form of the remedy sought was political. It has always been a weakness of the Anglo-Saxon to put his dependence for any desired reform upon the enactment of laws; and, as laws that are beneficial reforms in one generation may become oppressive and unjust in another, the first move of reformers among English-speaking peoples is usually to get rid of bad laws that may have been enacted by a previous generation of reformers. The next step, not always so wise, is to enact what are supposed to be good laws, in the expectation that all ills will thus be cured by statute. The advocacy of the People's Charter, commonly known as the Chartist agitation, which maintained a constant ferment from 1838 to 1848, and finally seemed to require radical measures of suppression by the government, illustrates the new and urgent spirit in English politics. The six points of the Charter were: (1) universal suffrage; (2) voting at elections to be by ballot, instead of *viva voce*; (3) the payment of salaries to members of Parliament; (4) the

A hearing sought
by the masses.

The Chartist
agitation.

SHIPPING ON THE
CLYDE, NEAR
GLASGOW.



redivision of boroughs and counties into election districts of equal population; (5) the abolition of property qualifications for members of Parliament; (6) annual instead of septennial Parliaments. A political program apparently, but the true spirit of the Chartist movement was thus expressed by one of its speakers: "The principle of the Charter means that every workingman in the land has a right to a good coat, a good hat, a good dinner, no more work than will keep him in health, and as much wages as will keep him in plenty." There was certainly very little of political theory in the practical economic program thus frankly stated. The new industrial England was making, somewhat confusedly but with

intense earnestness, the demands that only a perfect democracy could satisfy. The Reform Acts of 1867 and 1884 practically accomplished four of the demands of the charter — a general and popular, if not a universal suffrage, voting by ballot, representation according to population, and the abolition of property qualifications for members of Parliament. The others have never commended themselves to the more conservative element in England.



WHERE LAWS ARE
MADE FOR ENGLAND.

A new school of
statesmen.

The passing of the old generation of statesmen about the middle of the century left the field to men imbued with the ideas of the new age, men who from conviction or need of votes for their parties were disposed to meet the democracy midway. A recent French writer well says:

"In the affairs of Great Britain it is difficult to distinguish the Conservative program from the Liberal program except by the details of execution. The former wishes, like the latter, to finish the transformation begun in 1832. The electoral reform, resumed in 1867



A STREET IN CORK,
IRELAND.
(Patrick Street.)

by Disraeli, was continued in 1885 by Gladstone. The organization of elective local government in Great Britain, pursued by Gladstone (1870), then by Salisbury (1888), was finished in 1894 by the Liberals. The latter are penetrated with radicalism and have a plan of reform more general and more rational; the Conservatives retain traditional forms and offer innovations piecemeal, but they are not reactionaries and never reverse a change accomplished by their adversaries. It may be said that the Conservatives represent England and Anglicanism; the Liberals and their allies rather the Celtic and dissenting countries — Wales, Scotland, Ireland."³

For the thirty years of Mr. Gladstone's leadership of the Liberals, Irish affairs and foreign policy were the points at issue between the parties. After sharp fencing in the sixties for advantage of position in furthering parliamentary reform, the Tories passed the Act of 1867, which gave a wide extension to the principles of 1832. From this time Conservatives and Liberals definitely take the places of Tories and Whigs, names connected too intimately with old policies. The narrow Anglicanism of the Conservatives unfitted them for dealing with the troublesome Irish question, and in 1868 the Liberals under Gladstone came into power with an invincible parliamentary majority. A succession of measures according with the new spirit and fulfilling the comprehensive party pledges was put through, the most important being the disestablishment of the Anglican Church in Ireland, the reforms in public education, the adoption of the secret ballot, and the labor legislation. Of chief importance in the last category as marking the progress made by labor in securing political recognition, was the act giving corporate existence to trade unions, tolerated since 1825, but under heavy legal disabilities. The Liberal administration had done much that was beneficial, but it had gone too fast and far to retain popular support. Its course had not been free from errors, and each of its important measures had made enemies for it. In 1873, on an appeal to the people, Mr. Gladstone found his party in a minority and gave way to the Conservatives, led by Benjamin Disraeli, who was created Earl of Beaconsfield in 1876. The earliest measures of the new government in domestic legislation continued the work of the Liberals. The old law of conspiracy, which bore heavily on labor combinations was revised, and a substitute for the old law of master and servant placed both upon the same legal footing.⁴

Development of
parties.

³ *Histoire Générale* (Lavissee et Rambaud, ed.), t. XII., pp. 52-53.

⁴ Toyabbee, "Industry and Democracy," says of this culmination of popular reforms: "The workman had at last reached the summit of the long ascent from the position of a serf and stood by the side of his master as the full citizen of a free state."

Gladstone and
Disraeli.

For six years Gladstone, as leader of the opposition, and Disraeli, as head of the government, were pitted against each other in a strenuous political struggle, the issue in which was the foreign policy inaugurated by the government. Disraeli, brilliant but erratic, beginning his career as a Chartist radical, had come among the Tories as an intruder, looked at



WILLIAM EWART
GLADSTONE.

(From a painting by Millais.)

askance by the aristocrats of the party, whom he in turn cordially disliked. He made his way to leadership by sheer ability and persistence, forcing upon the Conservatives a positive constructive policy in place of the inaction that had been the reproach of the old Toryism. His ambition and florid imagination led him to the spirited foreign policy of Palmerston which Gladstonian liberalism disdainfully rejected. He elevated the hitherto somewhat haphazard development of British imperialism into a conscious government policy, declaring for the integrity of the empire and the closer union of the mother country and the colonies. He continued Palmerston's fatal policy of supporting the Ottoman Empire, thereby involving

England in endless difficulties, in spite of Gladstone's attempt to arouse the nation against the unspeakable Turk by his arraignment of the Bulgarian atrocities. Beaconsfield took part in the Congress of Berlin as the advocate of the invalid of the Bosphorus, and received an ovation on his return to England. Gladstone's attitude was regarded as one of sentiment while the government policy seemed to stand for the solid commercial interests of Great Britain.

Disraeli's great opponent was his political opposite in character as well as in politics. Like him he had changed his party affiliations, but in the opposite direction. Gladstone had brought with him into the Liberal camp the old



AN ENGLISH
HOMESTEAD.
(Torquay.)

Tory love of peace and of a moderate foreign policy, which he united with the democratic principles of the new liberalism of which he became the aggressive champion. The "peace, retrenchment and reform" of this new liberalism would have had little charm for the veteran leader whose chief delight had been to bully Europe and to join the French emperor in baiting the Russian autocrat. His real successor was Disraeli. Indeed, Palmerston had watched the political development of his

younger associate with open suspicion. "Whenever that man gets my place we shall have strange doings," he is reported to have said. Gladstone was brilliant as a political leader, orator and parliamentarian. He was dominated always by strong convictions, which he maintained with fearless courage. Not always just, nor always wise, he never failed to be true and honest, and was a splendid fighter for the causes he undertook to maintain.

Under Beaconsfield's administration the queen assumed the title of Empress of India; Cyprus was obtained in return for services to Turkey in the settlement growing out of the Russo-Turkish war; and an attempt was made to bring about the consolidation of South Africa under British control. The Transvaal was annexed in 1877 and revolted in 1880. The depletion of the treasury by Beaconsfield's expensive policy and the decline of prosperity in the later seventies led to the dissolution of Parliament in 1880, and the succeeding election gave a good majority to the Liberals. Beaconsfield died in 1881, and Irish agitation for home rule made that the issue between parties for the next fourteen years. The history of



BENJAMIN DISRAELI,
EARL OF
BEACONSFIELD.

this struggle, of Mr. Gladstone's remarkable conversion to home rule and his still more remarkable battle in its behalf, need not detain us here. Home rule was defeated because England maintained a heavy majority against what was regarded as a dissolution of the union, and this gave the Lords courage to hold out against the passage of the measure, which had its support chiefly in Ireland, Scotland, and Wales. Mr. Gladstone retired in 1894 and from that time the Liberals have lacked organization and purpose; they have had a name but no policy. The coalition ministry of Conservatives and Liberal-Unionists, under Lord Salisbury and Mr. Chamberlain, has held office since 1895, its attention being largely occupied by questions growing out of the development of greater Britain. With regard to the colonies and the world the policy of this administration has been that of Lord Beaconsfield, with such modifications as are demanded by changing world conditions.

Disraeli's imperial-
ist policy.

Two great measures of this period are a part of the democratic development here under consideration. The first was the completion of the parliamentary reform by two acts: (1) the Representation of the People Act of 1884, establishing a uniform franchise throughout the United Kingdom for householders and lodgers to an annual value of not less than £10; and (2) the Redistribution Act of 1885, which reapportioned representation in Parliament on the basis of population. These were not passed as party measures; their need was generally recognized. The second was a concession of the Conservatives to their Radical allies, the act establishing elective democratic county councils, in place of the old aristocratic magistracies, for the administration of counties and county boroughs.

Thus rapid has been the progress of Great Britain toward democracy during a half century. Nowhere else has the democratic movement been so well organized or so intelligently directed; nowhere else, except in the United States and in those great colonies that constitute the remainder

Rapid progress of
English democracy.

Emancipation of the people.

of the English-speaking world, has it accomplished such large and permanent results. The emancipation of the people has given an impulse in England as nowhere else to the movements growing out of the new industrial life—especially trade unionism, coöperation, and socialism. In England itself the aristocracy is still strongly entrenched. The normal English temper is conservative, and the established church is a powerful bulwark of the old order. But in Scotland, Wales, and Ireland dissenting churches and radical tendencies go hand in hand with a certain national restiveness under the domination of England—always somewhat inclined to arrogance. These forces of discontent have united with that of the great body of artisans that English industrial life has created to press radical measures one by one upon a somewhat reluctant government. Because of the ingrained English respect for law it has been possible for these great internal movements to go on without those violent outbreaks that almost always accompany such changes among people less trained in self-direction.

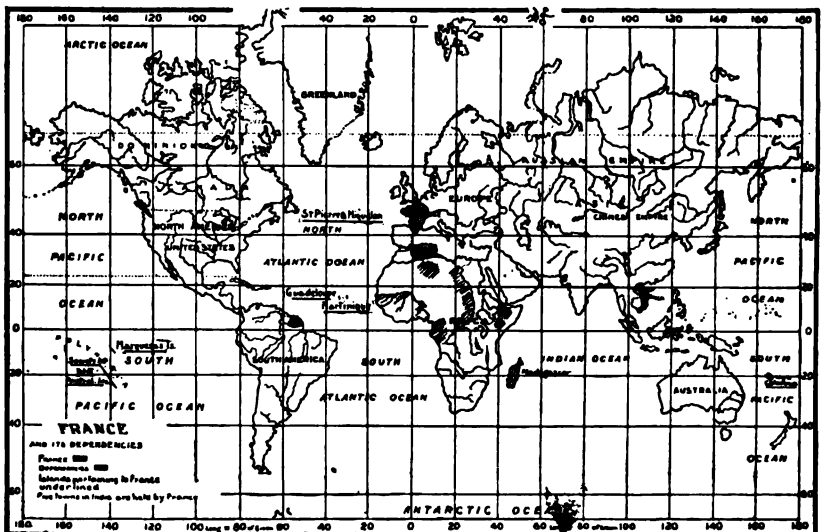
The condition and mobility of English society are of the highest importance in a consideration of the relations of Great Britain with the world, for in no other country have the masses of the people such complete means for making their power felt in any matter that really commands their interest.

CHAPTER IV.

REPUBLICAN FRANCE.

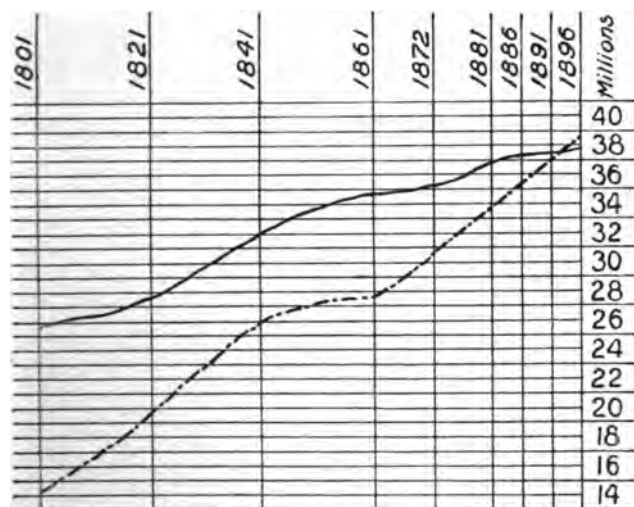
Political evolution of France.

The volcanic upheavals along the line of French political development make it a little difficult for the Anglo-Saxon to realize that France is following the same course of political evolution toward democracy that has been followed in the countries dominated by his race, the differences being of method and due to race temperament and historical beginnings. While the Anglo-Saxon is conservative, even in his radicalism, and much attached to precedents, the Frenchman is mercurial, moved by gusts of feeling, and given to entire reconstruction of the social fabric, as far as that is possible. He is also swayed to a far greater degree by the petty and personal in politics. Yet there is a greater sympathy between the two peoples than we sometimes recognize, as is shown by their close study of each other's institutions.



The sense of nationality arose in France far back in the middle ages, induced by France's central position and relation to its neighbors. Democratic ideas, too, were nourished in the early French communes, but the growth of the absolute monarchy brought to naught this germ of popular political life. In 1789 came the colossal crisis that made France an object-lesson to rulers and peoples the world over. The effort to secure a constitutional monarchy, like that of England, brought to the surface new forces, untrained and terrible, the democracy of Rousseau, the masses of the people, imbruted by ages of ignorance and oppression. Through them demagogues found a way to control France in a kind of anarchic despotism. In the reaction from this tyranny of brutality, the new rich, who had profited by the disorders of the time, came into control as the conservators of order. Then Napoleon, the man of the hour, swept up into his strong hands the fragments of French society, appealed to the French love of militarism and national glory, which had grown

Medieval and revolutionary beginnings.



[The average density of population in France is 189 per square mile, the number of inhabitants in 1896 being 38,517,975.]

There are in France 251 communes of over 10,000 inhabitants; in England and Wales 61.5 per cent of the inhabitants are rated as living in 358 towns of over 10,000 inhabitants.]

THE MOVEMENT OF POPULATION IN FRANCE SINCE 1801 COMPARED WITH THAT IN GREAT BRITAIN.

fierce and hot in the blood-tasting turmoil of the Revolution, and while attempting the subjugation of Europe, reorganized the whole French administration in accordance with the ideas of completely centralized imperialism. The Bourbons, in their own view, were despots by the grace of God; Napoleon was a despot by the grace of the people of France. It was a step toward democracy, and the democratic social changes remained,—peasant proprietorship, civil equality, eligibility for public office without distinction of birth, equal division of inheritances, freedom from clerical control. The Restoration, under the direction of the European concert, was compelled to take note of the progress that had been made. Hence the charter of 1814; but Bourbonism learned nothing, even in passing through revolutionary fires. The property or middle class, that had come into power since the Revolution, was in continual collision with the autocratic tendencies of the monarchy. The result was the overthrow of the elder line in 1830 and the enthronement of Louis Philippe, representative of the Orleans branch, always more touched with liberalism. This was the July monarchy, so called from the month in which the revolution took place. It was established in the name of parliamentary government against the attempt of the elder Bourbons to rule in spite of parliament. Coming at the same time as the first parliamentary reform in England, it produced the sympathy between the two countries which so much affected European arrangements for forty years.

During the eighteen years of the July monarchy the government tended toward reaction, the people toward republicanism. They grew farther

The Revolution of 1848.

apart and the Revolution of 1848 came. M. de Coubertin speaks of this revolution as "waged against the middle classes, who had taken upon themselves the part of vanguard of democracy and had afterwards misunderstood it."¹ And de Tocqueville gives a graphic picture of the



WHERE LAWS ARE
MADE FOR FRANCE.

ungrateful indifference with which this "pampered middle class" allowed the government that had existed for it to be overthrown by revolutionary forces that threatened all its interests.² One cannot read de Tocqueville's Memoirs,

or any frank account of the period, without a vivid impression of the futility and selfishness of French politics at the time, and the danger, after all the years of bitter experience, of arousing the populace to action. Now, as in the greater confusion, a Napoleon came to the front,—a Napoleon with ambition but without genius; a politician who could not be a statesman,—a Napoleon who sincerely desired to emulate his great uncle. Because he was a politician of some talent, he succeeded in the *coup d'état* of 1852, and the Second Empire came into being; because he was a politician, he succeeded in using the European situation to his own advantage and in giving France the influence he craved; because he really meant well and had some practical sense, he put France in a prosperous condition and advanced its material interests; but because he was not a statesman, he allowed himself to be influenced by bad counselors until the empire lost the popular sympathy that it had in the beginning; and because he was a politician rather than a statesman, he blundered in his dealings with Germany, overlooking the real strength of German national feeling. It was not, however, due to Napoleon III. or to the French people that, on July 19, 1870, war was declared upon Prussia. The Second Empire has been well described as an "adventure." It had gathered around it a number of political adventurers, whom the emperor, however good his intentions might be, could not throw off. France was not prepared for war; the last few years had seen its treasury impaired, and its army was badly organized and officered by incompetents. Yet a small war party, headed by Grammont and rallying around the Empress Eugenie, raised a specious demand for war, and forced issues, which Prussia, prepared and seeing the advantage to be gained from a struggle with France, was more than willing to accept. The territorial stake was the Rhenish territories lying where natural boundaries between France and Germany fail. An additional prize for which Prussia played was the union of North and South Germany. Other questions were mere diplomatic subterfuges.

The Second Empire.

¹ "Evolution of the Third Republic."

² Alexis de Tocqueville, *Memoirs*, chap. IV. M. de Tocqueville makes an interesting observation on the French Revolutionary method of government by classes: "In France, a government always does wrong to rely solely for support upon the exclusive interests and selfish passions of one class. This can only succeed with nations more self-interested and less vain than ours: with us, when a government established upon this basis becomes unpopular, it follows that the members of the very class for whose sake it has lost its popularity prefer the pleasure of traducing it with all the world to the privileges which it assures them."

Never was war more ill-advised; never was punishment more sudden and more severe. Prussia was as thoroughly prepared as France was unprepared. Instead of marching straight to Berlin, as the French war party had predicted, the French armies found themselves at the outset fighting a defensive campaign, then retreating upon Paris. From Wörth (August 6) to Sedan (September 1), where Napoleon III., the emperor who had lost an empire, surrendered to William I. of Prussia, the king who was about to gain one, the French met a constant succession of terrible defeats. In the capitulation of Sedan, over eighty-six thousand men were surrendered. Two days later the Empire had fallen, and the Republic was proclaimed in Paris, with a provisional government for the national defense. France, as Lamartine said of the fall of the first Napoleon, "never could tolerate failure in her rulers." On the 19th, two months after the rash declaration of war, Paris was facing a siege, which continued until the 28th of January, 1871. The remaining French army, under Marshal Bazaine, capitulated at Metz on the 27th of October, this surrender including 176,000 men and a large amount of artillery. The fiery activity of Gambetta, who was destined from this crisis until his death to play a leading rôle in France, maintained the efforts at defense,

The Franco-Prussian war.



AN ARTERY OF THE HEART OF FRANCE. THE SEINE.

and from Tours, whither he had escaped in a balloon, he dictated the measures for the relief of Paris. Everywhere there was failure that showed how hopeless was this last effort of national pride. In these months of hard and steady fighting not a single victory rewarded the French arms. On the 18th of January, in Versailles, the princes and free cities of Germany, with the King of Bavaria as their spokesman, offered the title of German Emperor of a finally united Germany to King William of Prussia, and it was accepted. Alsace-Lorraine had already been conquered. Prussia had won the prizes for which Bismarck had planned and schemed. Paris surrendered on the 28th, the terms including a truce of three weeks to allow the election of a national assembly to meet at Bordeaux and decide between peace and war. Gambetta resigned, Thiers was chosen Chief of the Executive¹ by the Bordeaux

Surrender of Paris.



¹ President of the French Republic after August 31, 1871.

assembly, and negotiated with Bismarck, who had convinced himself that this government might be held to represent France, the peace which ceded Alsace and German Lorraine to Germany and pledged France to pay an indemnity of five milliards of francs in three years, payment to be secured by military occupation of French territory. The peace was finally made at Frankfort-on-the-Main on the 10th of May, 1871.

The Third Republic.

The military power of France was broken. Whatever government might now arise must reaccredit the humiliated nation in the eyes of the world. The Second Empire had been an anachronism, an attempt to establish a benevolent despotism in a democratic age. As such it had failed, but it had paralyzed for the time being the political development of France. With the Third Republic, that development was resumed. "The Empire ceased to exist on the 4th of September, 1870, but the organized political life of the French nation went on; and the Republic was the only normal possibility." The first struggle of the new government was with the Paris commune, which revived the memories of 1793, holding Paris in a second Reign of Terror. This terrible insurrection came from the always dangerous lower classes of Paris, inflamed by radical agitators, and permeated by visionary doctrines of impossible rights of man. It was a bloody and costly revolt, suppressed with pitiless rigor by a government that could not afford to parley at such a crisis in the nation's life.

The Commune of 1871.

The instability of parliamentary government under the Third Republic has made French democracy an object of distrust abroad; but under the peculiar conditions in France, this very changeableness, which causes the overthrow of ministries upon the slightest provocation, provides a safety-valve for French restlessness and radicalism to expend its energies upon, without disturbing the real substance of government. Thus the latest republic has maintained a permanence which is allowing the French nation to evolve its political system in a natural manner. Every previous political situation in France since 1792 has been forced and arbitrary. The parliamentary history of the Republic well illustrates the wisdom of the recent remark of a thoughtful student of politics, that "the history of democracy ought to convince us that in a great nation the people as a whole do not and cannot really govern . . . that we are ruled by parties whose action is more or less modified, but never completely directed, by public opinion." This being so, the steadiest government will be found where two strong parties oppose each other with well-defined policies; and where so many factional groups exist as in France, the government will be unstable and subject to intrigues and personal influences to a perilous degree. For three years the strength of the Republicans in the Chambers was due to the jealousies and dissensions among the monarchist majority. In 1875 a Republican majority passed the several statutes known as *Lois Constitutionnelles*, which form the constitution of France, a democratic constitution, recognizing the fact of French society. These laws are far from being complete or perfect. The monarchists were willing to have a *modus vivendi* until they could agree to bring in the monarchy; the Republicans hoped to strengthen the constitution when monarchical opposition should have been weakened or

Parties and factions in democratic government.

The constitutional laws of 1875.



⁴Coubertin, "Evolution of the Third Republic."

⁵Lowell, "Governments and Parties in Continental Europe."

⁶The parliamentary groups in the first years of the Third Republic were the Legitimist Extreme Right, ultra supporters of the Bourbons of the elder line; the Royalist Right, moderate supporters of the same claimants; the Orleanist Parliamentary Right Center, Republican Left Center, Republican Left; and Extreme Left, made up of Socialists and Radicals; with a detached body of Bonapartists or Imperialists, supporters of the Napoleonic line.

eliminated. Under this constitution, then, democracy in France has proceeded in its development.

This political progress of the French nation has not been unlike the career of Gambetta, the great Republican leader, until his fall in 1882. When the catastrophe of September had caused the collapse of the hollow fabric of the Second Empire and the Republic had been proclaimed, he headed the movement to continue the fight with Germany, against reason though such a course would have been. In the beginning of the new government, as leader of the Extreme Left, he too often was a mischief-making radical, a stormy spirit, whose abilities and popularity made him dangerous. Later, as the leader of the Republican Union, he drew nearer the Center, sacrificing his radicalism to the common good. After giving the government loyal support for three years, he became

himself the head of the ministry at the close of 1881, and at his death, in 1882, the man who had been regarded as a firebrand among the inflammable revolutionary classes of France had attained a secure position as a brilliant and loyal Republican leader. He had not succeeded, as head of the ministry, as a constructive statesman, but he had done his country good service, for which he is remembered.

This progress from the rashness of the popular leader to the saner patriotism of the statesman typifies the progress that France is making from its reckless revolutionary upheavals to the wisdom of a self-controlled democracy. The attempt of President McMahon in 1877 to govern with a ministry opposed to the Republican majority drew the lines sharply between the Monarchists and the Republicans. This checked the tendency to union between moderates of the two parties; while the Republican victory in the parliamentary elections drew the Republicans together with a quickened sense of their own strength and gave the party over more to its radical elements, which had been brought out in force by the passionate earnestness of the campaign.

The later eighties were a discouraging period of factional strife, into which came General Boulanger, "the man on horseback," looming a hero and a menace for a brief time and then dwindling to a poor shadow of a man when his real quality was understood. His campaign was fostered by the Royalists, and the danger of a military dictatorship once more drew the Republican factions together. The result was a rally that showed the real gain that French democracy had made. Boulangerism was defeated and its hero dropped out of sight.¹ Its real effect had been

The career of Gambetta illustrates the progress of France.



THE GAMBETTA MONUMENT, PARIS.

Lines drawn between Monarchists and Republicans.

¹ On this episode and its lessons see *The Forum*, Vol. X., p. 383; and the *Contemporary Review*, Vol. LVIII., p. 19, and Vol. LX., p. 911.

Consolidation of the
Republican party.

to weaken the monarchical parties which had allowed themselves to be drawn into the movement, and to strengthen the Republicans by giving them an insight into their own vitality. When, in 1892, the Pope, in an encyclical, gave ecclesiastical recognition to the French Republic, which had suffered from clerical opposition, its position was further strengthened.

The past eight years have been given to efforts to consolidate and strengthen the conservative Republican party. The Panama scandals failed to disintegrate it; the murder of President Carnot strengthened it; but by 1895 the old groups and the old personal politics had reappeared. For five years, however, there has been a distinct tendency toward the organization of two strong parties. The first essential is a recognition of the definitiveness of the present form of government,—the recognition by all Frenchmen of the fact so compactly expressed by Thiers in 1872, "The republic exists." There is evidence that this is coming to be the attitude of France. The Dreyfus affair, revealing as it did abuses and intrigues in the army bureaus, revived the talk of a monarchy, but the development of democratic control has gone too far for more than a temporary monarchic revival, which would be more of an anachronism than the Second Empire.

The Republic and
the imperial admin-
istrative system.

The failure of most outside observers to understand the extent of this evolution of French democracy is due to their seeing the centralized administrative system of Napoleon, so inconsistent with democratic ideas, woven into the whole institutional fabric of France. The contradiction is a real one; but the reform providing for election of municipal officers shows that even here the process of democracy is working itself out. Social France has remained democratic since the first Revolution and the basis of society is sure to be ultimately that of the government.*

Difficulties and
hopes of the Re-
public.

Thus for more than a century, swept along in a boisterous current of political speculation, national ambition, factional strife, and love of liberty without comprehension of its essential character, France has been learning, painfully and at enormous cost, the difficult lesson of democracy. With the Third Republic has come a true political evolution, fitting government to the genius of the people. This is being accomplished through the slow but necessary process of national education. It is hindered always by the indifference of a considerable portion of the French people and their Celtic tendency to personalities in public affairs, rather than to those larger principles and ideas that must be the chief concern of just and wise government. But a careful study of the history and conditions of France makes it plain that monarchy is slowly passing, and that the democratic republic is the coming order.



* For an admirable summary of results of the political evolution of France, see Seignobos, "Political History of Europe Since 1814," pp. 221–227.

REVIEW QUESTIONS.

CHAPTER I.

1. What is the historical importance of the end of the nineteenth century? 2. How general is the tendency toward expansion? 3. How is the progress of democracy retarded? 4. Why is the ultimate appeal of nations still to battle? 5. To what sources may expansion tendencies be traced? 6. What is the question of the hour in world politics? 7. What has been the influence of inventions upon world politics? 8. Describe the growth of the democratic idea. 9. How does democracy influence expansion?

CHAPTER II.

1. What is nationality? 2. What is a natural political unity? 3. How does the growth of democracy influence the spirit of nationality? 4. How did Napoleon treat democracy? 5. In what way did Napoleon prepare Germany for political unity? 6. How many revolutions have there been in France since the downfall of Napoleon? 7. Describe the effects of the nineteenth-century revolutions upon Europe. 8. Why did England and France oppose Russia in the Crimean war? 9. When did the Congress of Paris meet? 10. What were some of the results of the Crimean war?

CHAPTER III.

1. Describe labor conditions in England in the eighteenth century. 2. What changes were brought about by the introduction of machinery? 3. What was Lord Palmerston's policy? 4. When did the Chartist agitation occur? 5. Describe the development of the political parties. 6. Who were the leaders of the opposing parties? 7. Contrast the

policies of Gladstone and Disraeli. 8. When was the Transvaal first annexed? 9. What were the great parliamentary measures of 1884 and 1885? 10. What progress has English democracy made since 1860?

1. When did the French idea of nationality begin? 2. Describe the positions taken by Napoleon and the Bourbons. 3. When did Napoleon abdicate? 4. What was the July monarchy? 5. How long did it remain in power? 6. When did the Second Empire arise? 7. What was the cause of the Franco-Prussian war? 8. When did it begin? Close? 9. Under what circumstances was William of Prussia made emperor of Germany? 10. When was the Third Republic organized? 11. What was the Commune of 1871? 12. What is the present status of democracy in France?

1. What is the Monroe doctrine, and by whom was it enunciated? 2. When was the French Revolution? 3. When was the Holy Roman Empire founded? 4. Who was its first emperor? 5. Who is the "sick man of the East"? 6. When and where did the charge of the Light Brigade occur? 7. Name the English sovereigns of the nineteenth century? 8. Who was "the grand old man"? 9. When did the English people secure the Magna Charta? 10. When did Napoleon die? 11. Name the presidents of the French republic. 12. What were the Panama scandals?

No attempt will be made to give an exhaustive bibliography of the topics treated in these chapters. The lists given will be carefully selected and will contain a few of the books or articles that can be recommended for accuracy and thoughtful treatment.

I.

Andrews, Charles M. "The Historical Development of Modern Europe." 2 vols. (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1896-98.) A valuable survey of nineteenth-century Europe, but presupposes some knowledge of the period. The second volume treats of the years since 1850.

Judson, H. P. "Europe in the Nineteenth Century." (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.) A condensed and interesting review of the history of Europe, beginning with the French Revolution. The chapter summaries and bibliography will be found very valuable.

Lowell, Abbott Lawrence. "Governments and Parties in Continental Europe" 2 vols. (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co., 1897.) A clear and accurate account of the governments of Europe and their practical working.

Müller, Wilhelm. "Political History of Recent Times," 1816-1875, (New York: Harper & Brothers) with special reference to Germany. Trans. with an appendix covering the period from 1876 to 1881 by the Rev. John Peters, Ph. D.

Reinsch, Paul S. "World Politics at the end of the Nineteenth Century as Influenced by the Oriental Situation." (New York and London: Macmillan, 1900.) This little book should have a wide reading. It is statesmanlike in its grasp of international questions. It has excellent bibliographies.

Seignobos, Charles. "Political History of Europe since 1814." Trans. from the French by S. M. Macvane. (New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1900.) The best complete political history of the nineteenth century for Europe, by one of the ablest of French historical scholars. The bibliographies of the American edition are useful.

The Statesman's Year Book, 1900. Ed. J. Scott Keltie. (New York and London: Macmillan.) An indispensable reference book for the student of affairs; a mine of statistical and political information. Published annually.

II.

McCarthy, Justin. "A History of our own Times; from 1837 to the Diamond Jubilee." 5 vols. (London: 1878-1897.) GREAT BRITAIN.

Morris, William O'Connor. "Ireland, 1798-1898." (London: Innes, 1898.) A useful account from the standpoint of an Irish landlord. Not above criticism.

Oman, C. W. "England in the Nineteenth Century." (New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1899.) A useful and interesting brief treatise, with much valuable data for the general student.

Rose, John Holland. "Rise and Growth of Democracy in Great Britain." Victorian Era series. (Chicago: Stone, 1898.) A suggestive study of the growth of English radicalism.

Toynbee, Arnold. "Lectures on the Industrial Revolution of the Eighteenth Century in England." (London, New York and Bombay: Longmans, Green & Co., 1896.) Throws much light on present-day conditions. See also under (I.), Seignobos and Müller.

III.

Bodley, John Edward Courtenay. "France." 2 vols. (New York: Macmillan, 1898.) FRANCE.

The work of a cultivated and sympathetic English student of French institutions. Mr. Bodley has done for France what Mr. Bryce did for the United States. The scope of the work is shown by the titles of its chief divisions: Book I.—The Revolution and Modern France; Book II.—The Constitution and the Chief of the State; Book III.—The Parliamentary System; Book IV.—Political Parties.

Coubertin, Baron Pierre de. "The Evolution of France under the Third Republic." Trans. Isabel F. Hapgood. (New York: T. Y. Crowell & Co., 1897.) A thoughtful historical study by a Frenchman who has made himself a part of the new and hopeful life of his country. See also under (I.), Andrews, Lowell, Müller, and Seignobos,

CHAPTER IV.

Search Questions.

Bibliography.

THE WHOLE FIELD.

GREAT BRITAIN.

FRANCE.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS.

INTRODUCTION.

- CHAPTER I. Historical importance of the nineteenth century :
- War and peace.
 - The industrial democracy.
 - Nineteenth-century forces :
 - Democracy :
 - National expansion — its strength and weakness ; monarchic and democratic sources.
 - Opening of the Far East.
 - The industrial revolution.
 - Democracy as a distinct political force.
 - World problems the result of an interplay of complex forces.

MID-CENTURY POLITICS IN EUROPE.

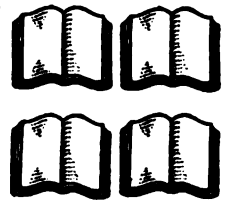
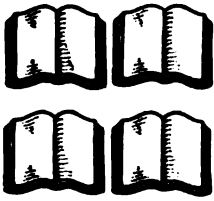
- CHAPTER II. Nationality's struggle for existence :
- What nationality is.
 - Natural political units.
 - Nationality and democracy.
 - The Revolutionary democracy.
 - Reconstruction of Europe :
 - Peace policy of the Restoration concert.
 - The Nineteenth-century revolutions.
 - The Eastern question :
 - Russian designs.
 - The attack upon Turkey.
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DEMOCRATIC ENGLAND.

- CHAPTER III. The transformation of England :
- Eighteenth-century England.
 - Changes wrought by machinery.
 - Social readjustment.
 - Palmerston.
 - The Chartist agitation.
 - A new school of statesmen :
 - Development of parties.
 - Gladstone and Disraeli.
 - The imperialist policy.
 - Rapid progress of English democracy.

REPUBLICAN FRANCE.

- CHAPTER IV. Political evolution of France :
- Medieval and Revolutionary beginnings.
 - The Revolution of 1848.
 - The Second Empire :
 - The Franco-Prussian war.
 - The Third Republic :
 - The Commune of 1871.
 - Parties and factions in democratic government.
 - The Constitutional Laws of 1875.
 - Consolidation of the Republican party.
 - Difficulties and hopes of the Republic.



I. GIBRALTAR TO ALEXANDRIA.

BY MARIE JADWIN.

In winter when the dismal rain
Comes down in slanting lines
And Wind, that grand old harper, smites
His thunder harp of pines,

— *Alexander Smith.*



WHEN it is that a goodly number of Americans belonging to that ever-increasing "leisure class" are wont to cast about them for a good place to cheat themselves of half the winter—half of a New England winter or even a Middle States winter being all many can stand, provided they have the means and opportunity to choose.

Escaping the rigor
of winter.

If one has tried the south, explored the west, and made the grand tour of Europe, in these days the mind naturally turns to the Mediterranean, to the south of France, the north of Africa or "round about Jordan." And, partly because the late winter is the time when Americans want to travel in search of warmth, partly because the spring in the Orient comes very early and if one wishes to see the land with any suspicion of greenness about it one must visit it at that time, it has come to pass that the season for trips to the Orient is in the first months of the year,—January, February, March and April. May and October are also charming months to sail on the Mediterranean; they are perhaps the most reliable months of the whole year, for then one is likely to be neither too hot nor too cold, and there are few storms. Day after day the sun rises in a cloudless blue sky, shines over the ever blue sea and sets in a blaze of glory behind some opalescent mountain in Italy or on some of the islands one is so constantly passing. It is reported that an Englishman traveling through the Lebanon mountains in Syria in the early fall was known to have exclaimed: "By Jove! another fine day," for forty consecutive mornings.

When to visit the
Orient.

It is just as easy to prepare for a trip to the Orient as for a trip to California. Ladies in a party (a party is rather an essential in an eastern trip, being safer, more enjoyable and economical) need the comfortable short skirt of the day, made of some good strong material, with a coat to match. A long skirt suitable for hotel wear is necessary; also a riding habit, at least a riding skirt that may be worn with a cambric or silk waist, as the regular lined cloth-habit waist might prove oppressive at times in the long horseback journeys in Palestine and Syria. One needs a good supply of flannel, silk and cambric waists, a white umbrella lined with green, a traveling hat that is soft, stylish, not too heavy or too much trimmed to have a *keffieh* draped over it for better protection from the sun at times; and good strong boots. It is a mistake to think that everything must be carried in large quantities, for articles can be laundered for travelers in any of the large hotels in a surprisingly short space of time. Of course these suggestions apply to tourists alone, as any one visiting in Cairo, Jerusalem, Beirut or Damascus would have oppor-

Preparing for the
journey.

Dress.

ROCK OF GIBRALTAR
AND NEUTRAL
GROUND.



Baggage.

tunities to wear much the same dresses she would wear when visiting at home. A pretty silk dress is sometimes a comfort in any case.

As to baggage: our English cousins when traveling have anywhere from nine to nineteen small pieces of luggage—kit bags, gladstones, hold-alls, shawl-straps, etc., but seldom a trunk. The idea is not a bad one, as we leave behind us in the United States all the calm indifference with reference to baggage which is evinced by the officials at the average American depot or dock. Instead we find ourselves, once across the ocean, in countries where the porters in tens of thousands, seemingly and literally fall over each other in their eagerness to carry baggage wherever you wish to go, at your own price. It may not suit in the end, but a trifle more always patches up a peace. One porter can carry about everything in the line of unboxed baggage; a trunk is often impossible in the East in places where roads are few and wagons fewer and mules and donkeys carry all the *saratogas*.

HORATIO J. SPRAGUE
(U. S. Consul at Gibraltar
since 1848.)



Choosing the agent.

In preparing for a voyage to the Orient one can hardly do better than to "follow the man from Cook's," as the popular song suggests. It is generally conceded that Thomas Cook can make the best arrangements for tickets, hotels, guides, horses, *dahabiyehs* and everything necessary for comfort on such a trip. This conclusion has not been reached so certainly by traveling exclusively under Cook's patronage as by not traveling under it. There is a bitter little picture in my memory of a party traveling under the guidance of another tourist agent not without some fame and success. When that party reached Cairo, they found themselves obliged to sleep on *dahabiyehs* moored to the banks of the Nile in lieu of hotels, the best hotels being entirely filled with Cook's tourists. Cook is said to own the East, therefore lose no time in consulting him.

Various routes.

Continuing in the desire to make this article valuable to the inquirer for information, we must now explain how easily the voyage from New York to the Mediterranean ports may be made. The North German Lloyd steamers sail every Saturday at 11 o'clock for Gibraltar, Genoa and

SOUTH PORT GATES,
GIBRALTAR.

Naples, where one may reship on a steamer of the same company for Alexandria or Port Said; or may take a *Messagerie Maritime* steamer of the French line, which touches at Athens, Constantinople, Beirut and Smyrna. The North German Lloyd steamers are most accommodating; one may leave the ship at Gibraltar, get a stop-over ticket, take a little tour about Spain or over to Tangier, then reëmbark on the same ticket on another steamer of the same line and continue the journey.

The first cabin rates on these steamers from New York to Naples range from ninety dollars to one hundred and fifty dollars. The time allowed for the run is twelve days to Naples and ten to Gibraltar. It is also a very easy matter to add a tour of the East to a journey through France, as Marseilles is a famous shipping place for all ports on the Mediterranean.

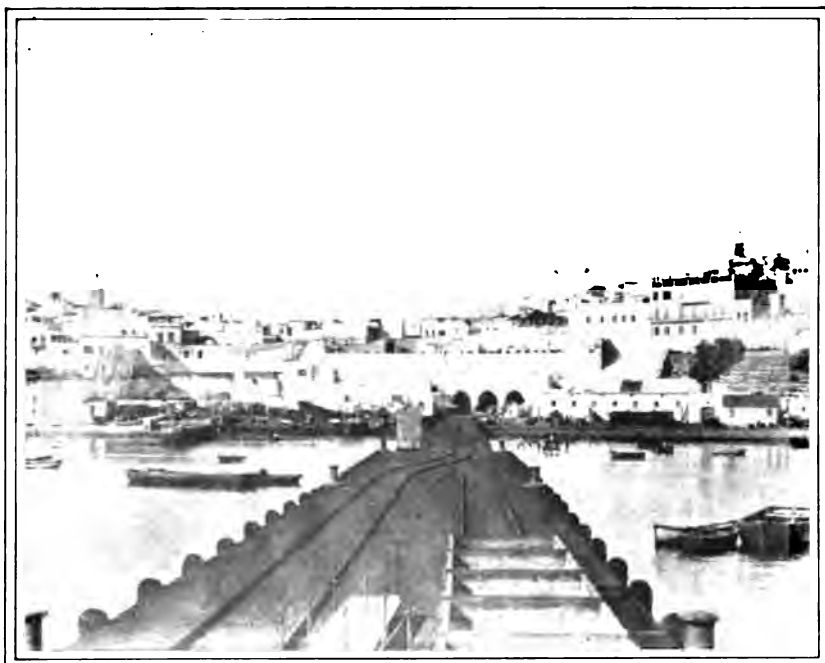
Every winter of late years has offered occasional excursions by the North German Lloyd, Hamburg-American and French lines from New York to the Mediterranean. Such steamers are generally chartered by the different tourist agents for large companies of tourists who wish to visit Egypt and the Holy Land. They are, of course, a great convenience, as one may touch at the Azores, Gibraltar, Tangier, Algiers, Malta, visit Alexandria, Cairo, Jaffa, Jerusalem, and Beirut, with a side trip to Damascus and Baalbec, Ephesus and Smyrna, Constantinople, Athens, Naples and Genoa, without any troublesome change of steamers. Such an excursion, advertised to leave Boston in February over the Dominion line, promises to accomplish all this for four hundred dollars.

Winter excursions.



The routes of different regular tours along the northern coast of Africa vary considerably. Some go from Algiers directly to Alexandria, as is the case in the present article; others visit Malta, while still others make stops at Tunis and Tripoli. The island of Malta, which is about fifty-five miles from Sicily, and two hundred miles from Cape Bon on the African coast, is a British dependency. Its area is about ninety-five square miles. The island is a very important strategic point, and its fortifications are exceedingly strong. Tunis, whose territory corresponds closely with that of ancient Carthage, lies east of Algeria. Its area is nearly 46,000 square miles; population about 1,500,000. The climate is fine, and the soil fertile. Its capital is Tunis. Tunis is a dependency of Turkey, but is under a French protectorate. Tripoli is a regency of the Ottoman empire. Its area is nearly 400,000 square miles, with a population of 1,000,000. The capital is Tripoli. The principal products are sheep, cattle, goats, dates, galls, etc.

VIEW OF TANGIER
FROM THE BAY.



The ocean voyage.

It is the fate of one of these excursion parties sailing from New York in February, 1895, that I am going to ask you to follow for a time. February in that year distinguished itself by a prolonged cold snap, so when our good ship sailed south out of the icy blasts and on the morning of the third day brought us to the green, smiling Bermudas where all was sunshine and warmth, we were ready to commend this southern route across the Atlantic. The next land we sighted was the Azores. Mark Twain devotes a chapter to these islands because, as he says, "they are so little known in America." He is also responsible for saying that they are a group of nine or ten islands far out in the Atlantic, more than half way between New York and Gibraltar, and that the population of about two hundred thousand is eminently Portuguese, that is to say, it is slow, poor, shiftless, sleepy and lazy. Everything is staid and settled, for the country was a hundred years old when Columbus discovered America. The principal crop is corn, which the people grind just as their great-great-grand-fathers did. Nobody comes to the islands and nobody goes away. News is a thing unknown and undesired.

We contented ourselves, in passing, with depositing some ninety letters and nine dollars in cash for stamps, in an air-tight box, and casting it into the sea, there being a tradition, clung to by stamp collectors, that some of the natives would row out and pick it up and mail the letters on the next steamer going in the other direction. This is merely a tradition, as I can testify that the letter I thus cast upon the waters has never been found, even after many days.

Gibraltar.

On the evening of the eighth day out we sighted the lights on each side of the Straits of Gibraltar — at Cape Spartel on the African coast and at Europa Point on the Spanish coast — and a little later we anchored in the harbor of Gibraltar. When we arose in the morning the great rock of Gibraltar, rising fourteen hundred feet almost perpendicularly out of the water, towered above us. We were soon surrounded by a fleet of small boats, each manned by a motley crew of Spaniards chattering and gesticulating like monkeys. By them we were conveyed to the shore, where we lost no time in exploring the town and fortress.

The rock stands on the extremity of a small peninsula which projects



A VISITING TRIBE,
TO SEE THE SULTAN.

from Andalusia, the most southern province of Spain. It is washed by the Mediterranean on the east side and by the Bay of Gibraltar on the west. This peninsula is connected with the mainland by a low, sandy isthmus called the neutral ground, which reaches from the rock to the Spanish line; its breadth measures about three-fourths of a mile.

Gibraltar, first known as Calpe by the Greeks, stood opposite Abyla, a mountain in Africa, called by the English "Ape's Hill." These two mountains were known as the Pillars of Hercules. The Saracens, when they crossed from Africa in 711, built a fortress on the rock and called it Gibel Tarik (the hill of Tarik). The modern name is derived from this source. The rock remained in the possession of the Arabs until 1309, when it was taken by the Spanish. In 1333 the Moors regained it and kept it until 1462, when it was taken by Henry IV., king of Castile.

The arms of the town were from this time forth a castle with a key hanging from its gate, typifying its command over the straits. At this time they succeeded so well in fortifying the rock that it was considered impregnable; it was taken, however, by a combined English and Dutch fleet in 1704. The Spaniards made desperate efforts from time to time to regain it but were always unsuccessful.

The most memorable siege of Gibraltar was that which it sustained from the land and sea forces of France and Spain in 1779-1783. The grand attack was made on the 13th of September, 1782, but all the resources of power and science proved fruitless in the hands of the assailants. The history of this famous siege is fully detailed in the work of Captain Drinkwater and in the "Life of Sir Gilbert Elliott," its gallant defender.

We agree with Richard Harding Davis in thinking that "the Gibraltar



"The history of this siege is one of the most interesting of war stories, whether you ever expect to visit Gibraltar or not. It is doubly so when you walk the pretty streets of the Rock today with its floating population of twenty thousand English, Jews, Spaniards and Moors, and try to imagine the place held by six thousand half-starved sick and wounded soldiers living at times on grass and herbs and a handful of rice, and yet carrying on an apparently forlorn fight for four years against the entire army and navy of Spain, and at last against the arms of France."—Richard Harding Davis.

MARKET-PLACE
NEAR THE GATE,
TANGIER.

(Mohammedans never have
their faces photographed.)



of today occupies the same position to the Mediterranean that Queens-town does to the Atlantic, a place where passengers go ashore while the mails are being taken on board, not so much for their interest in the place itself as again to feel solid earth under their feet." We are obliged to confess that we belong to the class of people who think one can see all or nearly all of interest in the town in three hours, unless one were acquainted with some of the residents. After forty-eight hours there, I can testify that the first three hours when we drove about the place were the only hours fraught with unmixed joy and interest.

Fortifications of
the rock.

Our first afternoon spent in the town was delightful. We began by driving to inspect the galleries in the rock on the east side. Arriving at the gate to the fort, the officer of the day summoned the proper "Tommy Atkins" to show us as much of this famous fortress as is deemed consistent by the English since their new system of fortifications has been completed. Time was when one could walk through two miles of galleries; now a half mile is about all there is on exhibition. But this is enough to give some idea of the work and time expended on the rock to make it the strongest fortress in the world. The galleries are the work of English convicts, and must have taken years to chisel out. They are wide enough to drive a team through, and have openings for cannon at regular intervals. From these openings good views can be had of the surrounding country.

As we came back into town, we took a turn around the race course and saw snatches of a race and noticed how carefully every point of the neutral ground was guarded. There were sentry-boxes every few yards, with English soldiers wearing pill-box caps, pacing between them.

Parks and parade
grounds.

A drive through the town showed it to be built on terraces. The English have spared no pains to make the town attractive with parks and parade grounds. In the Alameda there were roses, gardenias and heliotropes blooming, and a band playing. Farther on we passed the homes of the officers and the barracks of the soldiers, and came at length to the lighthouse on Europa Point, where we could look off across the bay out to the Atlantic.



A CROWD OF
NATIVES, NEAR THE
MARKET, ALGIERS.

But after this drive we came back to a noisy hotel on Waterport street and were kept awake all night by the soldiers and sailors who began the evening in a jollity which later became boisterous and at midnight filled the air with song and story and revelry of all kinds. In the early morning hours remorse and worse overcame the victims who all night long never seemed to get more than a hundred yards from the hotel.

Then to spend a Sabbath day in Gibraltar is not any too interesting. When you have followed the largest company of red coats into church and attended service, the place goes to sleep, and your impression that there is not much doing in Gibraltar is confirmed by the young Englishman who has been in town a year looking after his firm's interests and who had expected to stay there, but is so overcome with homesickness and the deadly dullness of the place that he is on the point of asking to be returned to England. His gloom was second only to that of another man who, as far as one could judge, was only kept in Gibraltar by the non-arrival of a letter. That it was an important letter and much delayed seemed certain, for he was still waiting after we returned from our tour of Spain — and this, too, in a place where strangers are not made particularly welcome, where a *permis de séjour* is issued by the police magistrate for ten, fifteen or twenty days, at the end of which time it must be renewed. Stringent measures are taken to prevent any increase in the number of permanent residents in the town.

A Sunday in
Gibraltar.

It is only fair, however, to state that this particular Sabbath was a rainy day. Monday dawned beautifully clear; and we spent the morning discovering Gibraltar to be a very good place to shop. A few sample goods from all parts of the world are collected there at fair prices.

After making this discovery it was time to set sail for Tangier, for Gibraltar is the stepping-stone to Africa. Small steamers leave every other day for this port. It takes three hours to make the journey, the fare being about a dollar in our money. In this short space of time and for so small a sum of money a person may be transported to one of the few unspoiled towns left to mankind, — unspoiled because unaffected by the march of civilization and untouched by the civil engineer. Here one gets

Off to Tangier.

a first taste of the real East, the first glimpse of oriental manners and customs.

When Mark Twain scores the Azores for being behind the times we are with him; when he says Gibraltar looks like a gob of mud on the end of a shingle we think him flippant; but when he says "Tangier is foreign from top to bottom, from center to circumference, foreign from inside to outside, with nothing anywhere to dilute its foreignness, that the true spirit of it can never be found outside the Arabian Nights," then, having

seen it, we believe him.

While we were waiting for the small boats to take us to the shore—for there is no harbor at Tangier—we were interested in watching the process of shipping cattle. A flat boat or float came alongside, full of large oxen, and a rope from a derrick on board our ship was securely tied about the horns of an ox which thereupon found itself suddenly swung into



ARAB QUARTER,
ALGIERS.

space, up, up, high over the side of the ship, and then lowered into the hold; a proceeding that each ox submitted to without a kick or a bellow.

Strange scenes in
the streets.

When we were once landed on the little pier, we had no trouble with customs officials, and were not asked to show our passports, but were soon wending our way on foot into the town. There are no carriages abroad, no streets being wide enough to admit of such a thing. One meets instead a procession of oriental humanity. Stately Moors with a white or blue burnoose (a long cloak with cowls) covering their Turkish trousers and embroidered zouave jackets, brilliant turbans and yellow slippers, are jostled by Jews in black caps and gabardines, and these in turn find themselves making way for wild-eyed Kabyles from the Berber villages inland. The women keep themselves carefully shrouded in their long, loosely-woven white blankets so that one eye is all you may see of their beauty, but this is touched up with antimony to make it sufficiently expressive.

Everywhere scamper African slaves with heads smooth shaven, except for a long lock left growing on the upper right hand side of the head near the back. We were immediately interested in this lock, and inquired its use and meaning before we reached our hotel. We were told it was left to pull them up out of the grave by on the resurrection day.

We found the Continental Hotel pleasant and comfortable, had our first taste of food cooked in oil, and were not long in falling into the hands of a guide who clung to us like a brother during our three days of sight seeing.

Palace and prison.

Our first expedition was toward the palace, a fine old Moorish building

at the top of the town. We had to share the narrow streets, which are seldom more than six feet wide, with camels, mules and donkeys. Arriving at our destination, we visited the prison, if you could call that a visit which is limited to a peek through a little slit in a door. A fat old Moor sat in front of the door before the small aperture, but for a consideration he moved aside, and we looked in for a moment on a group of forlorn humanity seated on the floor in a paved court-yard partly roofed over. Some were weaving mats and baskets, while others sat in apathetic idleness. Since the prisoners are fed by their own families or friends and there is no furniture visible of any kind, it cannot cost the government of Morocco much to run its prison.

From this peep at misery the ladies of the party were taken to see a harem, at least we were told it was the harem of one of the residents, but Mr. Davis is the authority for saying that it is the home of the widow of the ex-governor of the place, who with her daughters is willing to pose for tourists to visit. Though it may not have been a harem, it was quite similar to the real article I have seen in Damascus and Beirut, where the women are simply "shut-ins," and lead a colorless life in not unpleasant quarters. The widow and her daughters and the slave girl who attended them were all very handsomely dressed in embroidered garments. Moorish houses present a most unattractive appearance to the street, being simply walls with small doors and no windows, but once you

Glimpse of a harem.



are fortunate enough to enter this door, you are ushered into a pleasant court paved with marble or porcelain tiles, with, perhaps, a fountain playing in the center. The rooms of the house all open into this court, which has either a glass roof or is open to the sky.

STREET SCENE IN ALGIERS.

Foreign legations.

After seeing the harem we hired

mules and rode out of town to see the villas of the foreign legations. Wisely these homes are out of the city limits on hills which command a view of the sea. This ride proved pleasant, and included a glimpse of a Berber village, a quaint collection of round, thatched houses. The inhabitants were very shy and disappeared into their huts as soon as they saw us. We were cautioned by the guide not to ride too close to their houses, as the villagers resented intrusion. We rode back to town along the beach and had a canter on the hard sand.

At the hotel, after a dinner which read well on the *ménu* but left a taste of disappointment owing to the free use of oil, we were ready to visit the *Café Chantant*. This proved to be only a long low room covered with matting, with a visitors' seat running along one side of the wall. A

group of five or six men sat upon the floor singing and playing different crude instruments. One had an earthen jar with a pigskin stretched over it, which he beat with his hand. Another played a violin with two strings. A third had a tambourine, and a fourth a native banjo. The music was weird and intermittent, and evidently the model for most of the music on the Midway at the World's Fair. The Arab coffee passed in little cups was delicious and stimulating, and did much toward removing the dinner disappointment.

In the market-place.

The next morning we were abroad early to visit the Socco de Barra, the market just outside the walls. On our way we heard the musical call to prayers chanted from the minaret of the mosque, *La iláha il Allah : Wa Mohammed er-rasool Al-l-a-h!* At the market we found Arabs and Moors, all in their white cloaks, doing a rushing business, selling dates, oranges, herbs, eggs, sheep, Moorish slippers, mats and pottery.

Story-tellers.

Groups here and there were listening to the story-tellers dressed in weird costume, generally a tattered brown *jellabia*, half on and half off. Most thrilling tales they seemed to be,—these are evidently the men to tell of fighting and fair women, of hairbreadth escapes. The realistic semi-acting rivets every eye upon the story-teller; suddenly the wild gesticulations cease—one step more and the heroine's life would be

MOORISH WOMEN
PREPARING TAHAM.



saved, one blow more and the coveted prize would be gained—but now is the time to “cash up.”

Whenever a sufficient number of spectators can be gathered together to make it profitable, the snake charmers will show off their pet snakes and do their fire-eating tricks. A visit to this market is well worth while on market days—Thursdays and Sundays. In the little packing-box shops along the street one can buy the bright-colored cotton and wool scarfs, Damascus blades, fez caps and leather cushion covers.

Bits of the town's
history.

Tangier was probably one of the earliest settlements in Africa, but it did not come into prominence until the Roman period, when the Emperor Claudius made it a Roman colony. In the Christian period the town shared the vicissitudes of southern Spain, and belonged to Vandals and Romans. About the year 700 it fell into the hands of the Arab Nuesa and became the capital of the Maghreb-el-Aksa, i.e., the extreme western province of the caliphate of Damascus. Though the Berber tribes of this

district ranked among the most zealous champions of Islam, they did not long submit to the rule of the Arabs but established their independence of Damascus in 741. For a short time they were under the Caliph of Cordova, but for the most part they contended against the Moors in Spain or helped them in their wars against the Christians. From 1471 to 1662 Tangier belonged to Portugal, and during this time the population was largely increased by the immigration of the Spanish Jews and the expulsion of the Moors from Spain. In 1662 it passed into the hands of Great Britain, but the unenterprising British rulers at that time finding it a troublesome charge, resigned it in 1684. Morocco is now the only independent Barbary state. The government is that of a sultan or emperor of the Arab or Moorish class whose rule is absolute. The imperial court alternates between the inland cities of Fez and Morocco. The former city is beautifully situated between two hills. In the eighth century its fame was second only to that of Damascus, and when the road to Mecca was closed a pilgrimage to Fez answered as well. Now it is noted only for its bright leather and Turkish carpets. It is still an interesting sight to see the *hadj* (the yearly pilgrimage to Mecca) start from Tangier.



STREET IN THE
OLD CITY OF
ALGIERS.

Upon leaving Tangier, we find it is rather out of the line of travel for steamers except from Gibraltar or Cadiz. But our next stopping-place, Algiers, is generally included in all itineraries of winter excursion steamers. Regularly one reaches it from Marseilles on a French line; the trip across takes about thirty-six hours.*

From Tangier to
Algiers.

Algiers rises from the seashore up the sides of a precipitous hill in the form of an equilateral triangle, the apex formed by an ancient fortress of the days five hundred feet above sea level. From this fort the bold pirates were wont to scour the sea in search of ships to prey upon. For Algiers was the greatest den of robbers in the world, as it was the stronghold of the Barbary pirates. At the beginning of this century all the powers paid tribute to Algiers for protection to their shipping. In 1815 the United States refused longer to pay tribute, then the English



* "One cannot imagine a greater change than that from Tangier to Algiers; they have hardly anything in common except that both are in Africa on the Mediterranean. Algiers is a European city, while Tangier is African."—Henry M. Field.

under Lord Exmouth undertook to punish the marauders, but it was left to the French finally to gain control.

An offspring of
Paris.

Algeria is now the largest of the French colonies. It was under military rule until 1871, when it passed into the control of a governor-general appointed by the French. So Algiers has come to be an offspring of Paris. The town is divided into the old or high town and the new or low town. The latter has broad streets and boulevards along the shore and the shops and cafés are almost as gay as those along the Seine. The old town is a labyrinth of narrow streets and quaint bazaars and unattractive outer walls of Moorish dwellings.

The charm of Algiers is not in its likeness to Paris, but in its climate, its balmy air and perpetual springtime. Flowers bloom all winter. It is not therefore wonderful that the surrounding hills are occupied by the villas of English and French people who have fled hither to escape the cold fogs of London or the penetrating chill of Paris. It is a great place for invalids, and very beneficial to consumptives if they do not delay their going until too late. The average temperature is 70° to 80° (Fahr.) in summer, and in winter from 55° to 65°.

On to Alexandria.

After leaving this place of pure pleasantness we steam away along the northern coast of Africa toward Alexandria, a thousand miles distant. The somber mountains of Darkest Africa are almost constantly in view. The approach to Alexandria from the sea is not prepossessing; the steamer is within ten miles or so of the harbor before any portion of the low-lying coast can be discerned. The object first seen on the horizon, looking like a distant sail, proves to be the Phare, the direct descendant of the earliest lighthouse in the world. Pompey's Pillar next comes into view on the left, followed by the dome of the Ras-el-Teen Palace, Napoleon's Windmills and the rising ground at Ramleh. By this time Alexandria is in sight. Then the vessel rounds the great breakwater and the traveler is in Egypt.



Review Questions.

1. Describe the route from New York to Gibraltar.
2. What are the Pillars of Hercules?
3. By whom was Gibraltar first fortified?
4. Give an outline of Gibraltar's history.
5. To what country does Gibraltar now belong?
6. What is Morocco's form of government?
7. What distinction has the city of Fex enjoyed?
8. State the principal facts in the history of Tangier.
9. Describe a Tangier street scene.
10. By what country is Algeria governed?
11. When were the Barbary pirates overawed by the United States?
12. How are the Mohammedans called to prayer?
13. Describe the approach to Alexandria.

Search Questions.

1. To what country do the Bermuda Islands belong?
2. How many islands are there in the Azores group?
3. How is Gibraltar supplied with drinking-water?
4. What is sometimes given as the derivation of the word "tariff"?
5. Name the Barbary States.
6. How is each governed?
7. What are the principal religious bodies in the Barbary States?
8. Why do Mohammedans make a pilgrimage to Mecca?
9. When was Claudius emperor of Rome?
10. Who commanded the United States naval forces in the war with the Algerian pirates?
11. When and how did France secure control of Algeria?
12. What was the most famous lighthouse of ancient times?
13. What is Pompey's Pillar?
14. By whom was Alexandria founded, and when?

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CRITICAL STUDIES IN FRENCH LITERATURE.

I. AN EPIC: "THE SONG OF ROLAND."

BY PROFESSOR FREDERICK M. WARREN.

"Taillefer, qui mult bien chantout,
Sur un cheval qui tost alout,
Devant le duc alout chantant
De Karlemaigne et de Rollant
E d'Olliver e des vassals
Qui moururent en Rencevals."¹



WITH these lines the old chronicler Wace begins in his "Romance of Rollo" the story of the fateful battle of Hastings. And his account may be relied on, though written a century later than the great event; for Wace was already an old man, removed but one generation from the followers of the Conqueror. The recital of the deeds of Roland and Oliver and the tradition of the last fight of Charlemagne's paladins led the Norman invaders to their victory. They did not show themselves ungrateful to their poetical general, for it is in this description of the struggle at Senlac that we find the earliest mention of the "Song of Roland."

Its career previous to 1066 may be surmised. The heroic epic poetry of France, of which the "Song of Roland" is the best known example, grew up in much the same way that the Greek epic had grown, so many centuries earlier. Its beginnings were humble, almost accidental. Popular tradition and the enthusiasm of a nation developed petty facts and made them notable and representative. If we take the "Song of Roland" as an instance, we find that it has a historical basis in a misfortune which overtook Charlemagne as he was withdrawing his army from an invasion of Spain in 778. Bishop Eginhart, the biographer of the great emperor, says in his "Life of Charlemagne," written in Latin in the ninth century, that as the Franks were retreating through the Pyrenees the mountaineers fell on their rear-guard and crushed it. Among the slain were Egghard, the provost; Anselme, count of the palace; and "Roland, prefect of the Breton Marches." Epic fame with its usual partiality has preserved the name of but one of these leaders. The Latin annalist completes his mention of the defeat by adding that Charlemagne was unable to avenge his vassals, for the light-armed hillmen had dispersed to their homes the moment the deed was done.

Historical source of the song.



¹"Taillefer, who could sing very well, On a horse which could gallop fast, Went on before the Duke singing Of Charlemagne and Roland Of Oliver and the vassals Who died at Roncesvalles."—As the Norman host approached the English army, the chronicler goes on to say, Taillefer asked of Duke William the honor of striking the first blow. It was granted. He first ran an Englishman through with his lance, and then with drawn sword and crying out "Come on! come on! What are you doing? Strike! strike!" he spurred into the hostile lines and was surrounded by the foe.

Stages of its growth.

From this real event came the "Song of Roland," that we know. The stages of its growth must have been slow. At first some one of the returned imperial army, perhaps a retainer of Roland himself who had escaped the destruction of the rear-guard, may have told of the disaster to his friends and relatives who had remained at home. He would have praised the prowess of the unfortunate leader and magnified the number of his enemies. They would have overcome so stout a knight only when his armor had been hacked to shreds and his sword broken in his mighty hand. Such a narrative would be well calculated to excite the devotion of Roland's feudatories. They would have passed it from mouth to mouth. One of their number endowed with unusual musical gifts — and we may fancy him a descendant of those German singers who had overrun Gaul in the barbaric invasion — would have modulated it to a chant or a rhythmical recitative adapted to the larger audience of the market, the crossroads or even baronial halls. The lyric poem of Roland would be born.

Fancy added to fact.

Years go by. The memory of the knight Roland and the circumstances attending his last hours have faded from among his countrymen. They rely upon the bard and the song for their knowledge of his career. Perhaps the poem itself has passed into other lands, and is sung by a minstrel who had no direct acquaintance with its hero. There is room now for the fancy to play. The audience desires to hear about the events which led to the defeat, and whether Roland had comrades in his extremity. The old or new singer is only too willing to respond to these desires, and an imaginary account, purely narrative in its nature, is prefaced to the lyric eulogy. The first step towards an epic poem is taken.

History yields to tradition.

A whole generation has passed away. Bards and listeners are new. Events have dimmed. History yields to tradition, and our narrative-lyric poem drifts farther away from its actual source. More details of the occurrences which led to Roland's death are demanded and given. They are wholly imaginary. The poet explains how his hero came to such a pass. It must have been only through treason. His death could not have been compassed by mere tribesmen, armed with bows and slings. Such a fighter could only have succumbed to men of his own rank and equipment. The battle took place in the Pyrenees, and therefore Roland's enemies must have been the formidable Arabs of Spain, another addition to the narrative part of the recital.

The song becomes an epic.

A third generation replaces the second. Freed from all possibility of historical control, the story of Roland gathers to itself the traditions of other knights and other events. New episodes appear in it devoted to the praise of Roland's companions in arms. The treason is made more vivid and repugnant by being ascribed to one of Roland's own family, a knight of the court. He it is who induced the Arabs, once beaten by the emperor, to rally and pursue his rear-guard. And the plot thus outlined receives a dramatic solution in the return of the French army, the vengeance it takes on the Saracens and the punishment of the traitor who in betraying Roland has betrayed the sovereign. In this stage of the poem's development we can find hardly a trace of the old lyric song. Nearly everything is narrative, verging on the epic. And the last, the genuine epic phase is reached, when under the twofold influence of race and creed, Roland, the individual knight, ruined by his private enemies, is made the representative of the emperor and France, and dies defending the cause of Christianity against the onslaughts of unbelievers. The plot and the spirit have at last attained a harmonious fusion. Only episodes wholly foreign to the original story can now extend its length.

Present form of the song.

It is hardly probable that the song sung by Taillefer had taken on this more extended form. It would have been too long and too indirect for the purpose. Some intermediate version would have been more appropriate. And many such versions must have existed, handed down from

memory to memory. But the only version that we now know is the one that was intrusted to manuscript not long after Taillefer's song was stifled by the English. It is the long epic poem of some four thousand decasyllabic lines which we call the "Song of Roland." The manuscript which gives us the best idea of this completed poem is preserved in the Bodleian library at the University of Oxford. It itself is a minstrel's copy belonging to the last part of the twelfth century. The lost original seems to have been a century earlier. The poem is divided into strophes or *laissez* which are held together by the same assonance. Each *laisse* ends with the refrain or cadence, *Aoi*. The minstrel sang or intoned each *laisse* to the accompaniment of a *vielle*, or primitive violin. The story as he told it at the end of the eleventh century, three hundred years after Roncesvalles, is as follows:

Charlemagne has been warring seven years in Spain and has conquered all the country with the exception of the stronghold of Saragossa. The Moslem emir of that town, Marsile, holds a council to consider how to rid himself of the French. He is advised to offer tribute and give hostages against his appearance at Aix-la-Chapelle, Charlemagne's capital, and his baptism there as a Christian. In this way the invaders will be induced to withdraw, and he will be free of them by sacrificing the lives of the hostages he pledges. This advice is accepted, and Marsile's messengers reach the emperor seated among his vassals in a park. Charlemagne hears the proposal of the Saracens and in a council of his barons held under a pine decides to accept it in spite of the opposition of his nephew, Roland, who reminds his suzerain of the murder of an embassy he had sent to Marsile years before at the latter's request.

Outline of the epic.

This point decided, Charlemagne looks around for an ambassador. Several paladins are proposed, to be rejected by the emperor, who finally, at Roland's suggestion, chooses Roland's stepfather, Ganelon. Then is depicted the rage of Ganelon who thinks he is going to his death. He threatens Roland with his vengeance should he return. He arms himself, takes Charlemagne's glove and wand, as tokens of his authority, and rides off with the Saracen messengers, after sending farewell greetings to his family in "sweet France." On the way he listens to Charlemagne's praises from the mouth of his escort, and assures its leader, Blancandrin, that Roland is the great obstacle to peace. He enters into an agreement with Blancandrin to betray Roland.

Marsile greets Ganelon, but on hearing his message and threat is hardly restrained from piercing him with an arrow. Finally he consents to read Charles's letter and meet Ganelon privately. At the interview it is arranged for Marsile to send the tribute and hostages, which will determine the withdrawal of the main army of the Christians, and then with an overwhelming force surprise the rear-guard under Roland. Roland's death will deprive the emperor of his greatest aid. Ganelon swears the treason on the relics in the hilt of his sword, Murgleis. Marsile swears to the attack on the Koran. Many presents are showered by the Saracen chiefs on Ganelon, who rides back to the French camp. He finds Charlemagne, and tells him that three hundred thousand armed men of the infidels had sailed away and encountered a storm which had destroyed them all. The French thus reassured break camp and start for sweet France.

Treason of Ganelon.

That night the emperor dreams that his lance is shattered by Ganelon and that a hound saves him from the attack of a bear and a leopard. The next day Ganelon advises him to place the rear-guard under Roland's command. The latter welcomes such a charge and upbraids his stepfather for intimating that he fears the post. He receives Charlemagne's bow, but will take with him only twenty thousand men, his friend Oliver, Archbishop Turpin and the other paladins of the emperor. They will hold the

Roland placed in command.

mountain passes. The rest of the army, weary of the long exile, gladly turn their faces homeward.

"Halt sunt li pui e li val tenebrus,
Les roches bises, li destreit merveillus.
Le jur passerent Franceis à grant dulus:
De quinze liures en ot hum la rimur.
Pois que il viennent à la Tere majur,
Virent Guascuigne la tere lur seigneur.
Dunc lur remembret des fies e des honurs
E des pulceles e des gentils uixurs:
Cel n'en i ad vi de pitiet ne plurt."

Attack of the
Saracens.

But Charles weeps for Roland and for his peers, remembering his dream of Ganelon. And well he may, for Marçile summoning all his vassals is pressing hard after the rear-guard. Many are the Moslem nobles who boast of the victory they will win. The Christian rear-guard hear the trumpets sounding; Roland rejoices that he is to fight for his sovereign. "The pagans are wrong and the Christians are right," he cries to his men.

Oliver, from a hill, spies out the advancing host. He urges Roland to sound his horn to call back the main body of the French. Roland fears for his reputation, and refuses. He trusts to his good sword, Durendal. He encourages his followers, who are also admonished by Archbishop Turpin to sustain Christianity and confess their sins. He will absolve them, and if they die the "higher Paradise" will receive them as holy martyrs. The battle is joined. Four times the Moslems assail the Christian host, and four times they are beaten back. Fiercest is the fifth onslaught, and when it is at last repulsed but sixty French can respond to the summons of their dauntless leader. Roland sees the destruction and wishes to sound his horn, but Oliver affirms it would be an act of dishonor and rebukes his friend for having rejected his advice to call Charles back before it was too late: "Better is moderation than foolhardiness. The French are dead through your folly." Turpin stops their dispute and bids Roland sound, though too late to save their own lives. At least Charlemagne, hearing the horn, will avenge them. Roland blows. The hills and valleys resound. Charles hears it thirty leagues away. Again Roland sounds; and

The call for help.

"From his mouth gushes the red blood; The temples of his forehead are broken. Very great is the echo of the horn he holds. Charles hears it, as he passes through the defiles, Naimes hears it, the French listen to it. The king says, 'I hear Roland's horn: Never would he sound it were he not fighting.'"

Once more he sounds and the knights around Charlemagne arm for the fray and spur back to the relief of their comrades.

Roland looks about him. The ground is covered with the slain. He tearfully laments the knights of France. He then draws Durendal and rushes on the pagans. He cuts off Marsile's right hand, and beheads his son. But the Ethiopians come to the rescue of the infidels, and Oliver, mortally wounded, blinded by blood, yet fighting madly, strikes out, hits Roland unawares and splits his gemmed helmet.

"At the blow Roland looked at him, And asked him gently and softly: 'Comrade, did you do it on purpose? I am Roland who is wont to love you so; You had not challenged me in any way.' Said Oliver: 'Now I hear you speak; I do not see you: May God see you! I have struck you; pardon me the blow.' Roland answers: 'I am not hurt. I pardon you here and before God.' At this word the one inclines before the other."

Oliver overcome.

Oliver feels death coming. He dismounts, confesses his sins and



"High are the hills and dark the valleys, Gray the rocks, wonderful the passes. The French passed with great difficulty that day: You heard the noise they made for fifteen leagues around. Afterwards they come to the greater land, Saw Gascony the country of their lord. Then they remember the fiefs and the honors, And the maidens and the noble wives: No one of them but weeps from tenderness."

"prays God with joined hands to give him Paradise, And bless Charles and sweet France, His comrade Roland above all men." With these words on his lips he expires. Roland faints at the sight.

When he recovers he finds Archbishop Turpin and Walter de l'Hum the only survivors among the Christians. Turpin sells his life dearly. Roland, weak from loss of blood which flows from his broken temple, sounds his horn feebly. Charlemagne hears it and answers with sixty thousand trumpets and the war-cry of Monjoie. The valleys and the hills resound. The pagans discharge their last flight of arrows and darts, and flee. Roland is still uninjured by the foe. He hastens to Turpin's relief, binds up his wounds and gathers about the archbishop the dead paladins one by one, that they may receive a last blessing. He finds Oliver, embraces him closely, praises him, and weeps and faints. Turpin would fain bring water in his horn to revive him, but his heart weakens and he falls dead on the way. Roland recovers and prays for the archbishop's soul.

Flight of the pagans.

The brain is oozing from Roland's ears. He seizes Durendal and would break it on the hard rock. But the steel resists ten repeated strokes. He recalls his conquests won by Durendal and strikes again. The sword remains unbroken:

"When the Count sees that he cannot break it, Very softly he laments over it to himself: 'Ah! Durendal, how beautiful and holy thou art! In thy gilded hilt there are many relics: A tooth of St. Peter, blood of St. Basil, Hair of my lord St. Denis, Garments of St. Mary. It is not right that pagans should possess thee; Thou shouldst be served by Christians.'"

Death now invades his heart. Under a pine he lays himself with sword and horn beneath him and with head towards the foe, "That Charles might say and all his people" that he died a victor. He confesses his sins and lifts his glove to God. "Angels from heaven descend near him. God sends him his angel cherubim, St. Raphael, St. Michel of the Peril. Together with them came St. Gabriel. The soul of the Count they bear to Paradise."

Death of Roland.

Charlemagne reaches the field of battle. The sun is stayed in its course that he may complete the vengeance he takes. That night Gabriel watches by the emperor's bed. But grievous dreams trouble his sleep.

Marsile returns to Saragossa maimed and bleeding. An ally comes to him from Babylon, Balagant by name. Marsile sends him the keys of Saragossa. Charlemagne weeps over Roland and buries the bodies of his paladins. Balagant joins battle with him, is defeated after a bloody combat and killed by the emperor himself. The French return through France to Aix-la-Chapelle. There Oliver's sister, the beautiful Alda, who is betrothed to Roland, demands her lover of the monarch. He offers her his son Louis in Roland's stead.

Charles defeats the Saracens.

"Alda replies: 'This saying is a strange one to me. Please God his saints and his angels That Roland dead I do not remain alive.' She loses her color, she falls at Charlemagne's feet. Immediately she is lifeless. May God have mercy on her soul! The French barons weep over her and pity her."

At Aix Ganelon is tried for treason, after being harshly beaten by serfs. His kinsmen are held as hostages, and one of them comes forward as his champion. But Thierry, who maintains Ganelon's guilt, kills the champion after a fierce fight, the hostages are hung and Ganelon is torn to pieces by wild horses. Marsile's queen is captured, baptized as a Christian, and the poems ends with a summons by Gabriel to the unwilling emperor to take the field once more for the triumph of the faith.

Trial and execution of Ganelon.

The burden therefore of the "Song of Roland" is the struggle between the followers of the Cross and the adherents of the Moslem religion. The mountaineers who attacked the Frankish rear-guard at Roncesvalles, in 778, are magnified into the nobles of a great nation, the Arabs of the Peninsula. A religious creed is the central point of the first epic poem

Burden of the song.

of France, and religion became the animating spirit of the whole group which followed it. The rough warriors of medieval France overflow with zeal for the faith. They charge for Christianity and they die confessing their sins and absolved by their archbishop. We find in this body of literature the same ideas that moved the Crusaders. Indeed "Roland" is antecedent to the First Crusade and may have prepared the way for it quite as much as the preaching of Peter the Hermit.

Picture of feudal
loyalty.

Only less in importance to the notion of religion in "Roland" is its picture of feudal loyalty. As the old German chieftains of Roman times were attended by a picked body of companions, so Charlemagne is surrounded by paladins who willingly die for him. "Well should we be here for our king," cries Roland to Oliver. "For one's lord one should suffer distress And endure great heat and cold; And lose for him one's skin and one's hair." And Roland expires remembering "sweet France, the men of his lineage, Charlemagne, his lord, who had nurtured him," thus linking fatherland, family and sovereign together by one common chain of patriotism and vassalage.

Closely bound up with the trait of loyalty is the sentiment of friendship as typified by Roland and Oliver. They live together and almost die together. Their union of mind is complete. Their desire to increase their mutual affection is seen in Roland's betrothal to Oliver's sister, Alda. They would become kin before the law, as they were already related in their hearts. To this friendship Roland offers the last service in his power:

"Roland turns back, he goes to scour the field. He has found his companion Oliver. Closely to his breast he has pressed him. As well as he can he comes back to the archbishop. Upon a shield he has couched him with the other peers; And the archbishop has absolved and blessed him. Then his grief and pity redouble. 'Beautiful companion Oliver,' said Roland, 'You were son of the good Count Renier, Who held the Genoese Marches; For breaking lances, destroying shields, And for defending and counselling worthy men, And for conquering and troubling wicked ones, In no land was there a better knight.'"

Love crowded out.

Love has but a short rôle in this epic song. Religion and strife quite crowd it out. At the hour of death Roland is absolved in the performance of his duties as a knight, a vassal and a friend. He has no thought for his betrothed far away in sweet France. He passes away a warrior and not a lover. But the woman, condemned to inaction in her solitary home, lives only in her thoughts of the distant knight. It is the hope of his return which makes existence endurable to her, and when that hope is gone, though Charlemagne offer her his son's hand and she may be one day empress, she has no other desire than her lord and leaves the earth which he has ceased to tread.

Nucleus of French
epic poetry.

As the "Song of Roland" was among the earliest works of French literature it was among the most popular. Around it gathered and grew a whole body of epic poetry, with the same central idea of opposition to the infidels, the same notions of feudal loyalty and patriotism. Successive generations adapted the song to their own literary standards, it crossed the Channel with Duke William as we have seen, it penetrated Scandinavia and Germany. It even invaded Spain again, while in Italy, after undergoing modifications of form and substance, it burst forth into glorious renaissance in the poems of Boiardo and Ariosto. The "Orlando Furioso," the great romantic composition of the golden age of Italian literature, is the final and most artistic form of the war-song of Roncesvalles.

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THE INNER LIFE OF FÉNELON.

✠ ✠ BY REV. CHARLES M. STUART, D. D. ✠ ✠

(Professor in Garrett Biblical Institute.)



Y common consent there is no more winsome character in the religious history of France than that of François de Salignac de la Mothe Fénelon, archbishop of Cambrai. The charm exercised upon all who ever came in contact with him, in person or through the medium of his writings, is admirably illustrated in the remark of Rousseau who, to a friend's "If Fénelon were alive you would be orthodox," replied, "Ah! I would be his valet in the hope that I might become like him." Landor's estimate of Fénelon as "the fairest apparition Christianity ever presented," may appear to some over-ardent, but it represents exactly the feeling with which one rises from a study of Fénelon's life and writings. The brave but profligate Earl of Peterborough, after a visit to Fénelon, writes of him as "a delicious creature," and adds, "but I was forced to get away from him as fast as I possibly could else he would have made me pious." Even students who, ecclesiastically, are farthest removed from Fénelon in their sympathies yield to the fascination of his person. An English reviewer who makes the life of Fénelon a point of departure for a series of strictures upon Romanism, yet finds in the man "a sublimity of character which seems identified with the Gospel as delivered by Jesus Christ Himself;" and our own Channing, ever restrained and critical, declares that "seldom has a purer mind been tabernacled in flesh," and that "such a man is enough to place within the pale of our charity the whole body to which he belongs."

Charm of character.

Fascination of person.

The external conditions of Fénelon's life are briefly these: He was born on the family estate at Perigord in southwestern France August 6, 1651; his early training was directed by the father, a man of simple and devout habit of mind. At twelve school life began in the college at Cahors and was continued, later, under the supervision of an uncle, at the Plessis college in Paris. At fifteen the lad was put forward to preach and enrolled at the seminary of Saint Sulpice with whose director, the saintly Tronson, he at once established the most friendly relations. Diverted by the persuasion of friends from missionary work first in Canada, later in Greece, the young enthusiast became a power among the neglected poor of the parish of Saint Sulpice, whence he is taken in virtue of his graces and accomplishments to become superior of a school for the training of young women of good families reclaimed from Protestantism to Romanism. Upon the revocation of the Edict of Nantes, Fénelon was commissioned by the court to undertake the reconciliation of the disaffected in Poitou, in which delicate mission he was measurably successful; at this time, too, began his friendship with Madame Guyon which was so powerfully to affect his career. In 1689 he was appointed preceptor to the Duke of Burgundy, and challenged the homage of the most skeptical by the transformation wrought in that most unpromising character. "The marvel," says one historian, "is, that in so short a time devotion and grace should have made a new being of him [the Duke], and changed so many redoubtable faults into the entirely opposite virtues." Six years later Fénelon received the appointment to the see of Cambrai, in some respects the least desirable of church preferments; and soon after came the rupture with Bossuet and the decree of exile from Paris. For the remaining twenty years of life Fénelon gave himself unreservedly to the work of his diocese, suffering the displeasure of the court and the formal, though perfunctory, condemnation of the Pope, and on January 7, 1715, he died, the most venerated and beloved figure of Europe.

Early life.

Superior and priest.

Archbishop of Cambrai.

Virtue of his
"inner life."

Distinguished per-
sonal appearance.

Genius for letters.

Force of character.

Loss of friends.

In estimating the virtue of Fénelon's "inner life," one must take account of the special temptations to compromise with less exalted standards of living. Fénelon had supreme gifts for success in society and at court, which were virtually doomed to disuse in a society and at a court where spiritual religion was regarded as a threat and a menace. One has only to recall that it was the court of Louis XIV. to realize something of the difficulty the best-intentioned would have in maintaining a high degree of spirituality. There were sturdy souls, not a few, even about such a monarch; but they maintained their integrity at the perpetual risk of the king's displeasure. The king who "enviored his wife with mistresses and never thought himself sufficiently adored unless his weaknesses were included in the worship," was not likely to encourage the presence of men or ministers whose lives were a constant criticism upon his own conduct. At such a court, with his endowments, Fénelon, by slight compliances could have had any preferment he chose. In personal appearance he was so distinguished that, Saint Simon says, "it was difficult to take one's eyes off him;" and he had a genius for making people love him so that, as the same writer says, "in spite of disgrace at court, they gathered together to talk of him, regret him, long after him, cling more and more to him like the Jews to Jerusalem, and sigh and hope for his return, even as that unhappy race waits and sighs after the Messiah." His genius for letters was only less than his genius for religion; and one recent English critic has found something in him of Virgil, Sidney and Berkeley,—with an abatement, it is true, from the transcendent literary genius of the Mantuan, but with all "the romance, the high breeding, the inexpressible charm of Sidney, and more than a touch of his chivalry; and also the unaffected piety and quiet grace of the Irish bishop." Upon his first appearance at court Fénelon attracted the attention and commanded the confidence of the king's favorite, Madame de Maintenon; he was regarded with particular affection by Bossuet, whose influence at court was paramount, and he was the close and beloved friend of Beauvilliers, the most honored and trusted dignitary about the person of the king. Though less than forty years old Fénelon was a center of interest in the most brilliant court of Europe; every avenue to political and ecclesiastical power and prestige was open to him; he was, in a sense not true of any other man of his time, the pride and darling of his nation.

A man must have a symmetrical nature, and one thoroughly penetrated with the mind and temper of Jesus Christ, to preserve his moral equilibrium under such conditions. That Fénelon did preserve his equilibrium is not in question by friend or foe. The most trying ordeal of life, the ordeal of success, he came through, with no touch of weakness or of blame upon him. His apparent indifference to preferment arose from no insensibility to the good opinion of men or to the worth and opportunities of office, but from the conviction always clear and dominant in him that to do the will of God most perfectly one must not force or even attempt to direct the spirit of God who allotted to every man his work at the proper time in an unmistakable way.

A test not less critical of goodness than that of success is that of adversity. Fénelon's popularity was of short duration. In a few years the whole temper of the world had changed for him. Madame de Maintenon was cold, the king was hostile, Bossuet was outraged, the dignitaries of the court found it to their advantage to have slight remembrance and no regret for the person of the now exiled archbishop. Only the saints, the sages and the poor remained loyal. Beauvilliers, indeed, resisted the king, placing his resignation in the royal hands and offering to withdraw from court rather than renounce loyalty to his friend; a few others, too, notably his royal pupil, the Duke of Burgundy, maintained their love, though all communication had to be clandestine. Truly, if ever man experienced to the full the bitter reverses of worldly fortune

and the sharpness of ingratitude, it was Fénelon during the last twenty years of his life.

But through this ordeal also Fénelon came with the luster of his sanctity untarnished. Human nature finds it easy to condone resentment in a man against those who have done him an injury. But Fénelon had the higher law of forgiveness and charity for his ideal. "Louis XIV.," we are told, "laid heavy hands upon him and deprived him of offices and honors; exiled him from all cities and places outside of Cambrai; disgraced, imprisoned and banished his friends, and exerted his power in exacting ecclesiastical condemnation from the unwilling court of Rome. But Fénelon had no resentment. He was loyal in heart and action to the very last, and found an apology for the king's conduct in the latter's deficient education." Again, Bossuet's treatment of his old friend was cruel and unfair in the highest degree; when fairly beaten in debate he did not hesitate to resort to the syllogism of violence, compelling Rome's condemnation of Fénelon through the interference of the French monarch. When the contest was over, a friend, having spoken admiringly of Bossuet in Fénelon's presence, was afraid that the latter might be offended, whereupon Fénelon, sincerely distressed, said with emotion, "What can he think of me if he shrinks from mentioning before me a man whose genius and vast knowledge must forever be an honor to his age and his country as well as to his church?" Such magnanimity is possible only to a very weak or to a very great nature. It was in very deed an "Imitation of Christ" which made it possible for Fénelon to say when it was intimated to him that the Pope would condemn his book: "If God does not choose to make any further use of me in my ministry, I shall give myself up to loving Him for the rest of my life, being no longer able to work towards making others love Him."

In disfavor at court.

There is no explanation of Fénelon's character apart from his religion. True, he was natively modest, amiable, refined and high-minded, but others have been similarly endowed who never achieved that special elevation of character we call saintliness, and which was Fénelon's distinguishing characteristic. It is sometimes charged against Fénelon that his idea of religion was effeminate, mystical and impracticable. But Fénelon's own character is the unanswerable demonstration of its consistency with exceptional manliness, sagacity and successful achievement. "True piety," he says to his favorite royal pupil, "has in it nothing weak, nothing sad, nothing constrained. It enlarges the heart, it is simple, free and attractive. The kingdom of God does not consist in a scrupulous observance of petty details, but in a due performance of the duties which belong to every condition of life." The avowed defender of Madame Guyon and of the principles of Quietism, Fénelon's interpretation of that system is altogether rational, scriptural and practical. The three things for which he contends are very simple and fundamental. He contends that the Gospel has made it possible for every human being (1) to love God with all the heart; (2) to subdue and expel every untoward and rebellious temper and affection, and (3) to accept God's direction implicitly in all the affairs of life. His exercises for the achievement of this condition are the commonplace exercises of prayer, meditation, the study of scripture, holy living and unceasing benevolence. However the metaphysics of Quietism may be expounded and however they may have been stated by himself, for dialectical purposes, this was Fénelon's practical exposition of the system, the one which he accepted as the rule of his own life.

Distinguishing characteristic.

To Fénelon God always came as the Father, as the pitying and purifying friend of the soul, capable of being known and loved with a knowledge and love more intimate and enduring than any that might exist between man and man. To him indeed God alone was the medium through which the love of man for man could become perfect. "We never love our neighbor so well," he says, "as in God and for Him. . . . The true

Conception of God.

way of loving one's friends is to love them in God and to love God in them; to love what He has made them, and to bear for love of Him, with what He has not made them." And this love of God has in it nothing merely sentimental, mystic, ecstatic; it is eminently sane and practical.

"This love only demands of us an innocent and well regulated habit of life. It only requires us to do for God what common reason would enjoin. . . . It does not exact ordinarily startling heroic deeds, or a renunciation of rightfully acquired property, or of the advantages appertaining to each man's natural position. . . . It alters, disturbs, changes nothing in the order of things God has established. It leaves the great to their greatness, only causing them to be lowly in His hand who has made them great. It leaves the lowly in the dust and makes them to rejoice to be naught save in Him."

The unalterable and invariable habit of the truly religious man's life, according to Fénelon's view of religion, is that he should "commence each undertaking with a simple view to God's glory, continue it without distraction and finish it without impatience,"—a maxim which, on its human side, embodies the very essence of "practical" Christianity.

Practical idea of religion.

It is this practical and discerning quality in Fénelon's idea of religion that has given him such wide acceptance as a religious guide and teacher. It may be doubted whether any teacher outside of the New Testament has had so far-reaching and so helpful an influence. His maxims deal with the innermost heart of religion. He says:

"The general rule for the right employment of our time is to accustom ourselves to live in immediate dependence on the spirit of God, receiving each moment that help which it may please Him to bestow, consulting Him in those difficulties in which we may have to make any prompt decision, referring to Him in all our weakness, calling upon Him and lifting up our thoughts to Him whenever our hearts, drawn aside by outward objects, are inclined to stray from our true road, and tend, in any degree towards forgetfulness of God."

Definition of prayer.

He rightly makes much of prayer. "Prayer is so valuable, it is the source of so much blessing, that he who has once truly found this treasure to be his own, cannot but turn to it at every opportunity." Perfect prayer, with him, "must be the love of God. Union with God in prayer must be the result of faithful obedience to His will; by this alone must we measure our love to Him." He writes to the young Duke of Burgundy:

"I beseech you, let prayer nourish your soul as your meals nourish your body; let your fixed seasons of prayer keep you in God's presence through the day and His presence, frequently remembered through it, be an ever-fresh spring of prayer. Such a brief, loving recollection of God renews a man's whole being, quiets his passions, supplies light and counsel in difficulty, gradually subdues the temper and causes him to possess his soul in patience, or, rather, gives it up to the possession of God."

Next to prayer, as a devotional exercise, Fénelon emphasizes quiet meditation or as he calls it, "recollection"—the act of deliberately abstracting one's self from one's surroundings to come face to face with God. "Do not try to make long meditations," he advises the duke, "but every morning get some time for a brief one; and let this meditation be more a matter of heart than intellect, less of argument than of simple affection; little of methodical arrangement, a great deal of faith and love." Upon the virtue of self-examination he has the following helpful counsel: "It is a constant attention to God's will that enables us to perform it from hour to hour; not self-contemplation or the frequent examination of our own state which, often indeed, it pleases God to conceal from us." In the important exercises of dealing with temptation his counsel is, "Give up without reserve and without delay all that may increase or reawaken the temptation; and turn instantly to God in the temptation suffering no question whatever to interrupt our immediate return to God." In the even more important exercise of dealing with our faults he counsels:

Dealing with temptation.

"When we perceive an inclination to do wrong, before we have committed a fault, we must abstain from it; but after we have committed it, we must courageously endure the humiliation that follows. Faults are not cured by inquietude and vexation with ourselves; on the contrary, this forgetfulness is only the impatience of pride at the view of its own downfall. The only use, then, to be made of such errors is to submit quietly to the humiliation they bring, for it is not being humble to resist humility."



FRANÇOIS DE
SALIGNAC DE LA
MOTHE FÉNELON.

Fénelon finds a place in his view of religion for amusements:

"When amusements are innocent in themselves and when we are called upon to take our part in them in the order of Providence, it is only necessary that we should do so in moderation and as in God's sight. . . . Even our amusements, however useless in themselves, will become profitable if one only enters upon them as that which is suitable and in order to obey God therein."

A place for amusements.

Enough has been given to indicate the secret and source of Fénelon's consummate achievement in exemplifying the Christian life. It was in him as it must be in every man, not a special endowment, but a steady, persistent and inflexible determination to know and do the will of God through an intelligent and unwearying use of the most sensible and rational means to that end. And he has shown again what the true Christian always does show, that "the true and only alliance with God is through the inward order of a balanced heart and the outward of a blameless life."

Secret of his achievement.

*End of
Required Reading.*

The standard life of Fénelon is that by Cardinal Bausset, the substance of which has been given in English by Butler. A very important and interesting volume (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) contains "The Adventures of Telemachus" with Lamartine's brief life of Fénelon and Villemain's essay upon his character and genius. An excellent account is that by Mrs. H. L. Lear in the series of Christian Biography published by the Rivingtons. There are countless "Selections" from the writings of Fénelon, among which may be noted "Counsels for Men" and "Counsels for Women," published by Longmans, Green & Co. Of magazine articles perhaps the most important are *The Catholic World*, XI. 613; *Christian Examiner*, VI. 1; *Princeton Review*, XXV. 165; *Leisure Hour*, XIV., and *Littell's Living Age*, CCV. 492.

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AS we start out upon a new year of study, we face with new ambition the ever fresh and inviting problem of "self education." But the very abundance of opportunities which offer themselves is at times bewildering; and in order that we may surely keep our bearings and sail a straight course, we may at the outset take for our inspiration those words of the wise philosopher: "The end of education is to help us to choose the best things." How clearly the old sage understood human nature. Who of us has not suffered from that present-day demon who would goad us into futile attempts to be "up-to-date," as if that were not the peculiar province of dictionaries and their kindred. How instinctively we shrink from the human encyclopedia. But this power to choose the best things, this surely is an alluring possibility that appeals to us all. What then shall be our attitude to our new year of study so that our power to choose may be greater nine months hence than it is now? Perhaps we cannot do better at the beginning than to remind ourselves that growth means not only exercise but sometimes strenuous effort. Indeed, a true thinker of our own day has said, "real struggling is of itself real living. No ennobling thing of this earth is ever to be had by man on any other terms." We may remind ourselves also that self-education for us may be very different from that for some one else. We shall learn much from others but after all must grow in our own way. Was it not Emerson who said, "It is your development that is the essential thing. Read an author to get his message for *you*." And this being true let us live as much as we may with the great authors who have a message worth hearing. We shall meet with

many of them in our Chautauqua studies for this year and they will be safe guides in our chosen work of self-education. Let us read and reread them till they enter into our lives. "The world will be changed for you when you have assimilated the master's thought."

NEW COURSES FOR C. L. S. C. GRADUATES.

Never has a new C. L. S. C. year offered to graduate Chautauquans more varied and alluring paths for literary pilgrimages than those mapped out for the coming months. Of these mention must first be made of a course on Russia which we cordially recommend to every graduate not only because the subject is one in which every wideawake man and woman is interested, but because the study pamphlet which has been prepared by Miss Isabel F. Hapgood bears the evidence of intelligent and enthusiastic effort which will give to students an unequaled opportunity for the study of Russia. Every C. L. S. C. graduate who has no definite scheme for the coming winter will do well to try Russia. A unique plan has been adopted in the study pamphlet by which two courses run side by side, making the arrangement of special value to those who have large library facilities, and at the same time giving to the isolated reader who can secure only the two works prescribed for the alternative course, all possible help. By arrangement with one of the publishers of Rambaud's "Russia," a one volume edition of this valuable work brings the course within the reach of a large constituency, the required books and study pamphlet complete costing only \$3.75.

Another new study plan for C. L. S. C. graduates is the arrangement of a series of five or six Garnet Seal courses, each of which takes as its basis some one of the prescribed series of studies in THE CHAUTAUQUAN for

the current year. For instance, the Rivalry of Nations in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*, with two or three books to be recommended, will form a course in itself. The Reading Journey in the Orient will possibly be arranged so as to form, with certain recommended books, two courses. The Critical Studies in French Literature will be studied in connection with the entire volumes of some of the "studies" thus taken up. As these Garnet Seal courses will not be so heavy as some others, the fee for each will be twenty-five cents, since many graduates will want to take up two courses.

THE ANNUAL CERTIFICATE FOR 1899-1900.

The accompanying illustration reproduces the new annual certificate for the year 1899-1900. These certificates are much in demand, and circles and individual readers are sending in their reports with commendable zeal and claiming this recognition of the year's work. The annual certificate, like the diploma at the end of the four years, is awarded to any one who reports the completion of the year's reading. A blank form upon which to make the year's report has already been sent to every reader. No written review papers are

Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle.



Mount Vernon, Virginia, the home of George Washington.

Certificate Awarded for the Completion of the Course for the Year 1899-1900.

Abner Vincent
Secretary

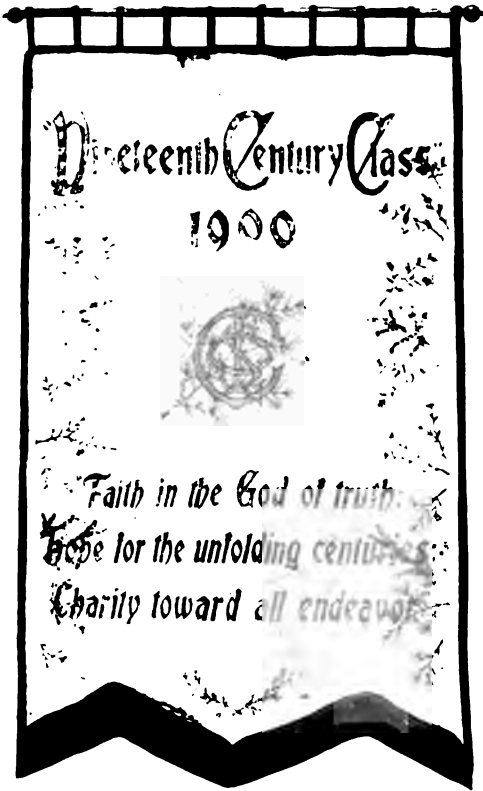
This new plan has two distinct advantages: it makes it possible for every graduate to follow the new and interesting lines of work in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*, specializing upon some one or two of them, thus enriching his knowledge of the subject, while at the same time he is adding seals to his diploma. It also enables him, if he is connected with a circle, to work with them in their Chautauquan studies and yet carry on some independent study in chosen fields of his own. Full details of these new courses will be mailed to all graduates and announced also in the November *CHAUTAUQUAN*.

This plan does not do away with the standing arrangement by which any graduate may take the regular undergraduate work and also add seals to his diploma.

required, though these give to the student additional seals for his diploma. The illustration selected for the certificate is taken from the beautiful panoramic photograph of Mt. Vernon, permission to use which was kindly granted by the Mt. Vernon Association and the Detroit Photographic Company, the latter being the holders of the copyright. The form of the certificate makes it suitable for framing either entire or simply as a picture. Among the circles the custom is growing of presenting these certificates at the first meeting of the new year. This is a plan much to be commended as it leads lagging readers to close up the past year's reading by the end of the summer, and so be ready to face the new year with achievements behind as well as ahead.

THE 1900 BANNER.

The array of C. L. S. C. banners which now accompanies the Chautauqua procession on Recognition Day presents a brilliant



spectacle, and each banner has many distinctive features which make it peculiar to the class which it represents. The illustration of the banner of 1900 shown herewith necessarily gives but an imperfect idea of the beauty of the original. It is the work of Miss Ida May Rockwell, of Akron, Ohio. The banner is made entirely of white silk lettered in gold and bound with gold braid and fringe. Most exquisitely worked into the fabric of the silk, by hand and not painted, is the beautiful border of sprays of evergreen, representing many different species and portrayed with a delicacy and truth to nature which makes this creation a genuine work of art. The banner was presented to the class by the Arbor Vitæ Circle, of Cohoes, New York, a circle small in numbers but mighty in achievements.



THE C. L. S. C. AT CHAUTAUQUA.

Early in the Chautauqua season the register of the summer schools showed a steadily

increasing quota of students from the ranks of the C. L. S. C. They came early, many of them, and stayed late. With some of them it was the one eventful year amid many that were monotonous; and the opportunities of the summer school, the daily lectures, the ever-changing lake and the "still air of delightful studies" brought happy and wholesome stimulus to body and spirit,—the true recreation. As the first of August drew near, the C. L. S. C. tide rose higher, and Rallying Day, the 2nd of August, found an enthusiastic company of delegates representing nearly a hundred circles gathered in the Hall in the Grove. The exercises were, as usual, informal and varied. Greetings from the far south were brought by Mrs. Kate M. Jarvis, the state secretary for Alabama. Mrs. Hemenway, of Providence, Rhode Island, gave a very entertaining account of the progress of the "Roger Williams" circle. Mrs. Hawley reported for the circle at Chautauqua itself. Her picture of the Hall in the Grove, silent and snowbound through the winter, contrasted strangely with the rustle of the leaves and the song of birds that could be heard on every hand. The Dominion of Canada was represented by Inspector J. L. Hughes, of Toronto, who taught the first C. L. S. C. lesson in English history at Chautauqua in 1878, when the first "students' sessions" of the Circle were held—the forerunners of the university extension courses of today. Other speakers brought greetings from many parts of the country and from different types of circles. The inspiring power of an "impossible ideal" and Chautauqua as the embodiment of such an ideal was the message which Rallying Day left with the assembled Chautauquans. In the afternoon at five o'clock the usual reception was held in St. Paul's Grove, and throngs of C. L. S. C. members and their friends were welcomed at the different headquarters, where the various sections of the country dispensed hospitality in their own characteristic fashion. This custom is already fast becoming a Chautauqua tradition, so that one hears a portion of the grove referred to as the region of the Cotton or Gulf states or a tree described as the Canadian tree, a happy coincidence being that the tree itself is a maple. At the daily C. L. S. C. Councils delegates and others met informally, bringing reports from their circles, asking for information upon perplexing points, gaining and giving all possible help in the true Chautauqua spirit. Sometimes the Council listened to a talk on "How

to Study History," "How to Make Everything of Use in a Library," "How to Study Greek Literature," or some kindred suggestive topic. These were followed by discussions, and when the meeting closed little companies of two or three often gathered for further illumination.

At the large Round Tables, held in the Hall of Philosophy, the general public were brought into closer relation to C. L. S. C. methods and ideals. Dr. George E. Vincent, at the opening Round Table, gave a memorable address upon "Personal Culture." President G. Stanley Hall devoted an hour to a question box on "How to Study Psychology," and Mr. Van Laer drew forth a lively discussion from his audience in his conference on "Greek Art in its Relation to Modern Life." Many of the lectures of the general program pointed forward to the C. L. S. C. Course for the French-Greek year, and many a Chautauqua note-book carried away multitudes of suggestions to be built into the fabric of a "circle" in the fall.

The graduating Class of 1900, though deprived of their president, Dr. Rubinkam, who was unavoidably absent in Europe, proved a remarkably homogeneous body of Chautauquans, and under the leadership of their indefatigable secretary, Miss Mabel Campbell, of Cohoes, New York, made

themselves felt in all C. L. S. C. exercises of the assembly. The social qualities of the class asserted themselves at the outset, and though many came to Chautauqua as total strangers they soon found themselves among friends. The most important social meeting of the class was the "Pine Party" held in Alumni Hall on Monday evening, August 13. Guests wore their visiting cards to facilitate acquaintance, and a brief literary program in which all had a share served



MRS. MYRTIE HUDSON
WAGNER,

First C. L. S. C. Graduate
on the Pacific Coast,
Class of '82.

as a background for the sociability which prevailed. The class emblem, the pine, was utilized in many unique ways. Pineapple frappé was served, and popcorn in pine bowls was dispensed with pine spoons to the holders of pine plates. Absent members of the class

testified to their interest by sending boughs of pine for the class room. Two of these came from the Johns Hopkins estate, near Baltimore, one of them being from a tree planted by the philanthropist fifty years ago. Others were received from Round Top, the burial place of Dwight L. Moody, one from an invalid member at Vergennes, Vermont, and one each from the circles at Portsmouth, Ohio, and Mt. Pocono, Pennsylvania.

In the absence of Chancellor Vincent, the baccalaureate sermon was preached on August 12 by Rev. Russell Conwell, of Philadelphia. In the evening the class held its "vigil" in the Hall of Philosophy by the light of the Athenian watch-fires. Dr. Jesse L. Hurlbut presided at the service; Professor F. J. Miller, of the University of Chicago, spoke briefly to the class in recognition of their four years of achievement, and gave them as his message of courage for the future the following poem, hitherto unpublished but now dedicated to the Class of 1900:



MISS LUCY M. WASHBURN,
First C. L. S. C. Secretary
for the Pacific Coast.

"AND THE VALLEYS SHALL BE EXALTED."

What though thy life be measured by a span
Of years, a meager score;
If worthily through all the days it ran
Be sure thou couldst no more
If thou hadst lived since hoary time began.

What though untoward Fate its barriers rear
And fence thy onward way;
Do but thy loving best within thy sphere,
And thou shalt stand some day
Beside the kings of earth as more than peer.

What though the jangling notes of time should mar
Thy life's melodious strain;
If fine and true it ring, 'twill sound afar,
And its benign refrain
Will echo back from Heaven's remotest star.

On the night before Recognition Day the classes were all "at home" in their rooms in Pioneer Hall, Alumni Hall, or in the '83, '84 and '85 class buildings. The usual good cheer prevailed, and the oldest graduate of '82 greeted the youngest freshman of '04 with never a trace of disdain but with the true hand-clasp of the Pioneer. At 8:30 on class night 'tis the time-honored custom of the Pioneers to sing their class-song, written by

Miss Lathbury to the tune of "Auld Lang Syne." All members of the class and all guests join hands when the song is sung, and this is followed by the class yell, a dignified but vigorous utterance!

The decennial exercises of the Class of 1890 would naturally have been held this summer, and plans were made by the class last year looking to such a reunion. But the unavoidable absence of several of the officers this year made a change of plan seem desirable, and it was decided to postpone the exercises until next year.



LEWIS MILLER.

The Class of 1902 was especially favored among undergraduate classes by the possession of a splendid class banner. The banner was made, painted and presented to the class by one of their number, Mrs. Carlton Hillyer, of Augusta, Georgia, and is a most artistic and beautiful standard.

Recognition Day proved all that could be desired by the most ardent 1900, except for the absence of the chancellor, Bishop Vincent, whose presence was keenly missed by all Chautauquans throughout the exercises of the assembly. The Recognition Day address was delivered by President Raymond, of Union College, Schenectady, New York, and at the afternoon exercises in the Hall a letter was read from the Pacific Coast Assembly bearing greetings to Old Chautauqua. A letter was also read from Mr. A. M. Martin, of Los Angeles, California, for many years "general secretary" of the C. L. S. C., now president of the Society of the Hall in the Grove. Mr. Martin has been closely identified with the C. L. S. C. at Chautauqua since its organization in 1878. As Messenger of the C. L. S. C. it was his duty to unlock the Golden Gate on Recognition Day, and in commemoration of this fact a telegram of greeting was sent him just after the opening of the Gate. A letter from the president of the Class of 1900, Dr. Rubinkam, formed an important feature of the exercises, after which the diplomas were presented by Dr. George E. Vincent, Principal of Instruction and Counselor Jesse L. Hurlbut, the class was photographed on the steps of

the Hall, and then adjourned till evening.

The "initiation" of the class into the mysteries of the S. H. G. took place in the evening in the Hall. Songs and greetings were given and the peculiar ceremonies characteristic of this occasion duly observed.

The Order of the White Seal, League of the Round Table and Guild of the Seven Seals received their own votaries with special ceremonies, from which all others were excluded, and the remaining members of the S. H. G. were encouraged to tread the narrow path which leads to the inner circles of the C. L. S. C. The closing C. L. S. C. service of the season was the vigil of the Class of 1901, which was conducted by President Barrows, of Oberlin, on the last Sunday evening of the assembly. From this time on the Class of 1901 assume the responsibilities of their seniority and look forward to the goal now only a twelvemonth ahead of them.



THE CLASS OF 1904.

One interesting aspect of C. L. S. C. affairs at Chautauqua is always the recruiting of the new class. A heterogeneous body of mortals is brought together and confronted at once with the task of selecting a president and other officers, choosing a name, motto and emblem and accepting the privileges and responsibilities in connection with the class home in Alumni Hall. Nevertheless, every new Chautauquan seems to rise promptly to the occasion, and the spirit of the class develops rapidly through the spirited discussions which attend the settling of its future identity. The new Class of 1904 is no whit behind its predecessors in class spirit. It chose for its class name "Lewis Miller," in recognition of Chautauqua's first president. The motto selected was "The horizon widens as we climb," and the emblem the clematis. The class was fortunate in securing for its president Mr. Scott Brown, of Chicago, the vice-principal of Chautauqua, whose presence at the assembly each year will be a distinct advantage in class affairs. Frequent meetings were held and the membership grew rapidly. Mr. Francis Wilson who gave his lecture on Eugene Field at Chautauqua early in August, became greatly interested in the class and enrolled himself as a member. The initiation of the class took place on Saturday night in the Hall of Philosophy, when the members were introduced to the books of the coming year. The busts of Socrates and Plato looked down in

mild surprise from their dignified positions at the side of the platform, and mistrusted that the days of the Bacchanalia had returned; for there appeared a Greek maiden gracefully robed in classic attire; then THE CHAUTAUQUAN showed how its circulation could be worked up on a new and novel plan. Next the "Human Nature Club" was represented by an up-to-date infant of heroic proportions who, tested by a feminine blue-stocking and a learned savant, at length put his guardians to flight and asserted the supremacy of the new education. "The French Revolution," as represented by the head of the Department of Physical Education, presented an unexpected view even of that age of political handsprings. And the "Rivalry of Nations" held high carnival over China till the ancient empire shook off its lethargy and "boxed" the offenders.

With enlightened ideas of the work before them, the class scattered, and the serious work of recruiting has gone on ever since. 'Tis work not alone for the '04's, but for every active member of the C. L. S. C. Let every one lend a hand now at the beginning of the year and make the new class a power in the land.

The Piasa Assembly rejoices in the possession of a new Hall of Philosophy dedicated to the work of the C. L. S. C. as well as to the other departments of literary culture at the assembly. It thus becomes a lineal



HALL OF PHILOSOPHY AT PIASA.

descendant of the famous Hall in the Grove at Chautauqua, though, as will be noted in the illustration, its architecture is at least "once removed" from the ancestral type.

One of the characteristic features of the Monteagle Assembly, in Tennessee, is the

service known as "twilight prayers" held every evening in Warren Hall. This is the favorite hour of the Monteagle program and even Warren Hall, built expressly for this purpose, cannot accommodate those who attend. The leader of the "twilight prayer" service for many years has been Captain M. B. Pilcher, who has endeared himself to all Monteagle Chautauquans by his wisdom and sincerity. Captain Pilcher is also an enthusiastic member of the C. L. S. C., conducting the Sunday evening vesper services, and for the past fourteen years leading the procession on Recognition Day and serving as "Keeper of the Gate."



CAPTAIN M. B. PILCHER.

A touching incident in the Recognition Day exercises of the Class of 1900 at Pacific Grove this summer is given by the secretary, Mrs. Dawson. At Petaluma, California, lived the oldest member of the class, who had joined the circle when seventy-nine years of age and pursued the course with fidelity and enthusiasm. In the early spring she "passed on," a few days beforehand expressing to her daughter the fear that she might not live to attend the assembly as a graduate. Her daughter was present at Pacific Grove and brought her mother's message. In appreciation of the work of one of their number, the class had a chair placed upon the platform with a wreath of white flowers and a card bearing the name of Mrs. Barbara Lewis, aged 83—Class of 1900.

The first of the four books taken up by all Chautauquans this year is "The French Revolution." To some who are new to the work and to the subject it may seem a little difficult at first. But do not be discouraged. Read and reread and think. Books that "stretch our minds" help us to enlarge our powers. The French Revolution stands between the Old Régime and the Europe of today, and it is a great experience to be able to look back over the centuries preceding this period and watch the gradual evolution of forces making for higher civilization.

A NEW YEAR FOR THE CIRCLES.

Let it be the best. Give to the circle the enthusiastic, hearty coöperation that you give to personal interests of your own. Do your share of the work and there will be no burdens to carry.

Recruit the strength of the circle by adding new members. If it is already full and enlargement is unwise, then help start a new one somewhere. Let this be the first altruistic effort of the circle for the new year. Has Chautauqua been a help to you? Then pass it on to some one else. The C. L. S. C. grows from within, and every member may secure at least one more.

Arouse a new interest if possible among the graduates in your community. Some are absorbed in cares that crowd out Chautauqua, and know little of its new plans. Send them copies of the new C. L. S. C. hand book, the current year's announcements and a copy of the October CHAUTAUQUAN.

Let the home office have very full and detailed reports of all your activities as a circle. See to it, please, that the secretary makes these reports. Other circles are eager to know the experiences of those who are sharers in their work, and both suggestions and criticisms can be turned to good account.



OUTLINE OF READING AND PROGRAMS.

C. L. S. C. MOTTOES.

"We Study the Word and the Works of God."

"Let us Keep our Heavenly Father in the Midst."

"Never be Discouraged."

C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS.

OPENING DAY—October 1.
BRYANT DAY—November, second Sunday.
MILTON DAY—December 9.
COLLEGE DAY—January, last Thursday.
LANIER DAY—February 3.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.
LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.
SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.

ADDISON DAY—May 1.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.
INAUGURATION DAY—August, first Sunday after first Tuesday.
ST. PAUL'S DAY—August, second Saturday after first Tuesday.
RECOGNITION DAY—August, third Wednesday.



OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING.

OCTOBER 1-8—

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: The Rivalry of Nations. Chap. 1.

Required Book: The French Revolution. Part I., Chap. 1.

OCTOBER 8-15—

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: The Rivalry of Nations. Chap. 2. A Reading Journey in the Orient.

Required Book: The French Revolution. Part I., Chap. 2.

OCTOBER 15-22—

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: The Rivalry of Nations. Chap. 3. The Inner Life of Fénelon.

Required Book: The French Revolution. Part I., Chaps. 3 and 4.

OCTOBER 22-29—

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: The Rivalry of Nations. Chap. 4. Critical Studies in French Literature: The Song of Roland.

Required Book: The French Revolution. Part I., Chap. 5.

OCTOBER 29-NOVEMBER 5—

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: The Rivalry of Nations. Chap. 5.

Required Book: The French Revolution. Part II., Chap. 6.



SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLES.

Students who are especially interested in "The Song of Roland" will regret to learn of the scarcity of complete translations in English. That by Rabillon is out of print and O'Hagan's is not available in this country, except as it may be ordered from England, but these translations can of course be found in all the larger libraries. There is, however, an excellent little volume by Way & Spencer, published by Macmillan & Company, which can be secured through the Chautauqua Office for forty cents. This contains a translation of some three hundred and fifty lines of the poem with connecting passages. "Song and Legend from the Middle Ages," by W. D. & P. L. McClintock, used in the C. L. S. C. course in 1893-4 also contains selections.

OCTOBER 1-8—

1. Brief Papers: How absolutism in France was increased by Henry IV.; by Richelieu; by Mazarin.
2. Map review of old French provinces assigned to one or two persons and the origin of the more important ones given. (A serviceable wall map can

be made very readily by sketching these provinces with crayon on a large sheet of drawing-paper.)

3. Quiz of members appointed beforehand to report on allusions in the required book: The improvements made by Turgot in Limoges. Mandrin and Hulin. England's social condition in 1750—

60. Germany's at the same time.

4. Roll-call: Answered by quotations from present-day opinion respecting China.
5. Debate: Resolved that a higher civilization has no right to force itself upon a lower one. (See editorials in *Outlook*, *Nation*, *Collier's Weekly*, *Harper's Weekly* and other current magazines.)

OCTOBER 8-15—

Note: As the article on A Reading Journey in the Orient is prescribed for this week, the circle may select from the Travel Club programs for this meeting, or, if preferred, defer reports on the "Journey" until January, when Greece will form the leading study.

1. Roll-call: Answered by giving an important date in the present century, what it commemorates to be given by the circle.
2. An imaginary meeting of representatives of the French nation in 1760. Ten persons should be chosen and each should impersonate the character assigned, looking up the subject as fully as possible, so as to make his point of view convincing to himself, if not to others. The ten characters might include, 1. Louis XV. 2. Madame de Pompadour. 3. A noble of the highest rank. 4. A conscientious intendant, as Turgot. 5. A peasant. 6. A landless noble. 7. A member of the *bourgeoisie*. 8. An artisan. 9. An army officer. 10. A private.
3. Reading: The story of the Great Siege of Gibraltar. (The French had an important share in this siege which took place from 1779-83. See Travel Club references.)
4. Debate: Resolved that civilization would be advanced more rapidly under a number of nations than under one world nation.

OCTOBER 15-22—

1. Roll-call: Quotations from Fénelon, or striking incidents from his life.
2. Papers: The Influence of the French Salons. (See "The Hôtel de Rambouillet," by Leon H. Vincent.) Cardinal de Rohan. Talleyrand. Fénelon's "Adventures of Telemachus," and its influence. (See Bibliography.)
3. Reading: Selections from "Maids and Matrons of New France." (See page 15 of this magazine.)
4. Two of the most significant facts in the chapters of "The French Revolution" under consideration given by each member.

5. Review of "The Countess of Rudolstadt," George Sand, with selections (description of the Illuminati).
6. Discussion of chapter on democratic England, different sections being assigned to four or five members of the circle to sum up.
7. Topics for Debate: Resolved, that there is greater moral danger to individual and nation from excessive wealth than from extreme poverty. Resolved, that society suffers more from old fogyism than from radicalism. Resolved, that present social conditions in England are better than before the introduction of machinery.

OCTOBER 22-29—

1. Roll-call: Answers to Search Questions on "The Rivalry of Nations."
2. Readings from "The Song of Roland." (Members of the circle will have familiarized themselves with the required study of the origin of the poem, but the reader will do well to introduce his selections with brief explanations.)
3. Review of Chapter 5, "The French Revolution," by an appointed leader.
4. Papers: Rousseau's "Emile" and its influence. The poet Wordsworth and his connection with the French Revolution. Political Clubs of the French Revolution. (See this magazine.)
5. Reading: Robert Browning's poem, "The Lost Leader," with explanation of its significance.
6. Review of Chapter 4, "Rivalry of Nations," the leading topics being assigned to different members.

OCTOBER 29-NOVEMBER 5—

1. Roll-call: Answered by quotations from historians, poets or men of affairs concerning the French Revolution.
2. Papers: The Wars of Louis XV. and what France lost by them. The Jansenists. The Ultramontanists. Lafayette.
3. Reading: From biography of Arthur Young. (See volume on his travels edited by M. Betham-Edwards. The sketch of his life is most entertaining.)
4. Book Review: "The States General," by Erckmann-Chatrian.
5. Oral Report: The Incident of the Diamond Necklace. (See lives of Marie Antoinette, Carlyle's account, Dumas' novel, etc.)
6. Discussion: Germany's attitude toward colonization.



THE TRAVEL CLUB.

One of the most useful books for the Journey in the Orient this month is "The Barbary Coast," by Dr. H. M. Field. Interesting references will also be found in "Africa in the Nineteenth Century," Sanderson, (Scribner's), Chapter V. dealing with the Barbary States. Mrs. Latimer's "Europe in Africa in the Nineteenth Century" also includes chapters on the above states and some consideration of the French in Africa. "Morocco and its People," by the Italian traveler, de Amicis, is an entertaining volume for those who would make closer acquaintance with this sadly benighted country which yet holds great promise of future development.

First Week —

1. Roll-call: Answered by quotations about Gibraltar. (See Longfellow's "Poems of Places.")
2. Papers: The Moors against Spain. (See "The Story of the Moors," G. P. Putnam's Sons.)
3. Oral Report: The story of the great siege. (See "Gibraltar," H. M. Field; also article by him with this title in *Scribner's Magazine*, April, 1888.)
4. Reading: "At Gibraltar." George E. Woodberry. ("The North Shore Watch and Other Poems," Houghton, Mifflin & Co.)
5. Papers: The South Staffordshire Regiment. (See "Gibraltar," H. M. Field.) Gibraltar Today.

(See Bibliography.) The Black Watch. (See "The Barbary Coast," Field.)

6. Reading: "De Sauty." O. W. Holmes. (See Field's "Gibraltar" for De Sauty's relation to this subject.)
7. Discussion: The Relation of Gibraltar to the Twentieth Century. (See *Nineteenth Century*, November, 1895.)

Second Week —

1. Roll-call: Anecdotes of European travel.
2. Papers: Tangier. A Trip to Tetuan. (See "Spain and Morocco," Finck.)
3. Reading: Selections from "Innocents Abroad."

4. Papers: The Cities of Fez and Morocco.
5. Reading: "The Caravan in the Deserts." Felicia Hemans. (See "Poems of Places.") "The African Chief." W. C. Bryant.
6. Discussion: The Resources and Future of Morocco. (See "The Barbary Coast;" also *Public Opinion*, June 23, 1898; *Independent*, June 14 and 28, 1900; *Harper's Weekly*, June, 1900, page 538.)

Third Week —

1. Roll-call: Memorable dates of North African history. Events to be guessed by the club.
2. Papers: Oran. Algiers in History. Modern Algiers. (See Bibliography.)
3. Oral Report: Augustine. "The Last Great Man of Africa." (See "The Barbary Coast.")

4. Reading: "Under the Olives." ("Poems of Places.") Africa. Selections from "The Exiles," by Richard Harding Davis.
5. Papers: Kabylia. The Gorge of Chabet and Biskra. Fourth Week —
1. Roll-call: Discussion of Search Questions.
2. Paper: France and Tunis.
3. Oral Report: The Story of Carthage.
4. Reading: "Derne." John Greenleaf Whittier. "Africa." Maria Lowell. ("Poems of Places.")
5. Papers: Tripoli. The Barbary Corsairs. (See "Story of the Nations.")
6. Discussion: The advantages and disadvantages to France of her possessions in North Africa.



REVIEW QUESTIONS ON "THE FRENCH REVOLUTION."

(C. L. S. C. Required Book.)

PART I. CHAPTER I. THE ABSOLUTE MONARCHY.

1. What three causes account for the condition of France by the beginning of 1789? 2. To what kings and statesmen was the rise of the absolute monarchy due? 3. What powers of government were vested in the king under the system of absolutism? 4. Through what subordinate officials were these powers exercised? 5. Origin and number of the provinces? 6. How many provinces had retained by 1789 the privilege of holding provincial assemblies? 7. What social orders were represented in these assemblies? 8. Describe the authority of the intendant. 9. How did "the centralization of France in Paris" affect society, trade, and problems of reform? 10. Mention proofs of the inconsistency, inefficiency, and indifference of the monarchy by the end of Louis XV.'s reign. 11. Population of France at that time?

CHAPTER II. THE PRIVILEGED AND THE UNPRIVILEGED.

1. Why was the French Revolution primarily a social rather than a political revolt? 2. Who formed the First and Second Estates under the Old Régime? 3. Number of persons in the Second Estate, amount of land, and number of castles or châteaux owned by them? 4. What was the most profitable privilege enjoyed by these two estates? 5. Name the chief direct taxes levied on the peasants. 6. What per cent of the peasant's income was absorbed by the sum of his taxes? 7. What was the method of collecting taxes, direct and indirect? 8. Give Calonne's estimate of the annual result of the salt tax. 9. Mention some flagrant examples of sinecure appointments. 10. What was the marked distinction between the condition of the landless noble and that of the peasant? 11. Show how the feudal privileges of the nobles in hunting were a serious injury to the peasant farmer. 12. What justification had there been in early times for the feudal system? 13. Chief causes for the distinct feudal reaction, 1780-1789? 14. Origin of the Third Estate? 15. What were its three divisions by the eighteenth century? 16. Reasons for lack of unity in this estate? 17. Distinguish between the *Commune* and the municipality. 18. From what class was the militia practically levied? 19. How was the regular army raised? 20. What injustice in the matter of promotions?

CHAPTER III. SOCIAL CONTRASTS AND MORALITY.

1. Give illustrations of the extravagance and rigorous formality of court life in the time of Louis XVI. 2. What sharp contrasts to this state of things existed in the condition of peasants and artisans? 3. What striking proofs of a general lack of moral sentiment in

society? 4. What were the favorite subjects of conversation in the salons of the better social life?

CHAPTER IV. THE CLERGY AND RELIGION.

1. What estimate is given of the wealth of the church in 1789? 2. Number of the privileged class in the church? Of the curates? 3. How was the income of the church divided among the different grades of clergy? 4. General character of the higher and the lower clergy? 5. In what regard were the clergy held by the court and the peasantry? 6. What degree of toleration was shown to Protestants? 7. Describe the general manifestation of unbelief and of credulity.

CHAPTER V. INTELLECTUAL EMANCIPATION THROUGH PHILOSOPHY.

1. What nations furnished the liberal ideas in the philosophy that stimulated revolutionary feeling? 2. What was the great value of Montesquieu's "Spirit of the Laws"? 3. What revolutionary teachings were proclaimed by the Physiocrats? 4. Describe the versatility of Voltaire. 5. What are the distinctive qualities of his style? 6. What is the value of his service to the cause of religious and political liberty? 7. Give an outline of the history of the Encyclopedia. 8. What was the social ideal of the Encyclopedist school? 9. Titles of Rousseau's works? 10. What is the one valuable idea back of their miscellaneous teachings? 11. What was evidently his ideal in government? 12. What evidences of the dynamic influence of his teachings were manifest in his own lifetime? 13. In what department of modern life does his influence continue to be felt?

PART II. CHAPTER VI. THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE REVOLUTIONARY SPIRIT UNDER LOUIS XV.

1. What is the essential explanation for the success of a revolution? 2. How long had the revolutionary spirit been in process of developing prior to 1789? 3. Name some of the oppressive restrictions upon freedom of thought in the reign of Louis XV. 4. Why did the Revolution not open in 1754 rather than 1789? 5. What two things are necessary for a nation to become regenerate? 6. What instances are mentioned of high-minded, liberal action among members of the nobility? 7. What lamentable lack of discrimination among thinkers of the time between *rights* and *duties*? 8. In what other countries was the spirit of discontent also at work? 9. Name some of the notable representatives of this unrest. 10. Name four exhibitions of the spirit of absolutism in other countries than France and a consequence of each.

NOTES ON "THE FRENCH REVOLUTION."

P. 1. "Louis XVI." Fifth monarch of the French Bourbon line. The C. L. S. C. membership book gives the full list of rulers.

P. 2. "Charles the Bold." Last duke of Burgundy, 1467-1477. His possessions included the Duchy of Burgundy, the County of Burgundy (Franche Comté), the Nivernais and a great part of Picardy. He planned to unite Alsace, Lorraine, Switzerland and Provence to his own states, but was defeated by the strategy of Louis XI., an able but unscrupulous monarch of the House of Valois, 1461-1483, who labored successfully to overthrow the system of feudalism. See Scott's "Anne of Geierstein" and "Quentin Durward."

"Richelieu" (rish'-e-loo). Prime minister of Louis XIII., whose work cleared the way for the supremacy of France in Europe.

"Mazarin" (maz-ah-reen'). Prime minister of France during the regency of Anne of Austria, mother of Louis XIV.

"Caryatids" (car-i-at'-ids). Columns in the form of sculptured female figures. Properly used only when light weights were to be carried.

P. 3. "Edict of Nantes." The first formal recognition of toleration in religion made by any leading power in Europe. Granted in 1598 in favor of the Huguenots by Henry IV., revoked by Louis XIV. in 1685.

"Parlement," the French word from which the English word "parliament" is derived.

"Sun King." The favorite emblem of Louis XIV. was the rising sun.

P. 4. "The Sorbonne." This university was founded in 1256 by the chaplain of Louis IX. Under Richelieu it was enlarged and completely reconstructed.

"High Court of Paris." See p. 82, "The French Revolution."

P. 6. "Until 1614." The first States General or national assembly met in Notre Dame in 1302. It was composed of the three chief estates or classes of the realm,—the clergy, the nobility, and citizen representatives of the free towns. In 1484 the peasantry obtained the privilege of choosing deputies and were united with the inhabitants of towns as the Tiers Etat or Third Estate. During the regency of Marie de Medici, mother of Louis XIII., a meeting of the States General was called in 1614, but in consequence of a petition humbly asking for very moderate reforms the doors of the assembly room were locked against the deputies and no other national assembly was convoked for one hundred and seventy-five years.

P. 8. "Bureaucratic." Conducted according to rigid and arbitrary routine.

"Lettres de cachet" (lettres de kashay).

"Jansenist." One who accepted the system of belief which the Roman Catholic bishop, Cornelius Jansen, claimed to have formulated from the writings of Augustine. The doctrine of Jansenism is considered by Protestants to indicate a reaction within the Catholic church against the general spirit of the Jesuits.

P. 10. "The Pompadour." Jeanne Antoinette Poisson, Marquise de la Pompadour, who for nineteen years during the reign of Louis XV. was in reality the ruling sovereign of France and influential in European affairs.

P. 12. "Old Régime." The political and social system prevailing in France before 1789.

"Villeins." Feudal serfs.

P. 18. "Pacte de Famine." An arrangement between the king and a few nobles to buy up the grain of the country and hold it for an enormous profit.

Octroi (oc-trwöh). Town dues.

P. 21. "Cahier" (kah-yea). Official instructions of the electors to the deputies at the States General.

P. 23. "Bourgeoisie" (boor-zhaw-ze'). The middle or commercial class of society.

P. 25. "Commune." A town association formed for common protection, under a charter granted by a king, electing its own magistrates and organizing militia.

P. 26. "Jacobin." Originally the name of a French revolutionary club, so called from its meetings in the hall of a former Jacobin convent; afterwards used to signify an extreme revolutionist or demagogue.

"Proletariat." Day laborers and all other persons without capital or assured means of support.

"Mississippi Bubble." A Scotchman, named John Law, organized in Paris in 1715 the Mississippi Company, which promised to make its shareholders rich through colonial speculation. The widespread ruin caused by its failure led to the use of the term "bubble."

P. 28. "Force gangs." Detachments detailed to press men into the military or naval service. "Crimps." Persons who decoyed men into places where they could be impressed into military service.

P. 30. "Canaille" (ka-nahye). Rabble, mob.

P. 35. "Métayers" (may-teh-yeas).

P. 41. "Dilettante" (dil-et-tan'-te). Having a superficial acquaintance with art and letters.

P. 48. "Illuminati." A select secret deistic and republican society founded at Ingoldstadt, Bavaria, in 1776, and extended throughout Europe, aiming at emancipation from despotism.

P. 55. "Physiocrats." The followers of François Quesnay, a French political economist (1694-1774), who held that society should be governed by a law inherent in itself; that land and its unmanufactured products are the only true wealth, the precious metals being a false standard; that the proper source of state revenue is direct taxation of land; and that there should be freedom of trade, person, opinion, and property.

"Encyclopedists." The writers whom Diderot gathered about him to assist in preparing the Encyclopedia.

P. 56. "Laissez faire, laissez passer" (lai-sai fare, lai-sai pas'-say). Freedom of occupation and of trade.

P. 60. "Deo crexit Voltaire." Erected to God by Voltaire.

P. 67. "A priori." Literally, from what is before.

P. 74. "Ultramontanes." Those who in political or ecclesiastical matters desire to have all power in the church concentrated in the hands of the Pope.

"Augustinianism." The doctrines of sin and grace as developed by St. Augustine.

"Pelagianism." The body of doctrines held by the followers of Pelagius, a British monk, about 400 A. D.

"Unigenitus." A celebrated papal decree, issued in 1713 by Pope Clement XI., in condemnation of Quesnel's annotated French translation of the New Testament; so called from its first word.

P. 80. "Rösbach." In Thuringia. Frederick the Great won a brilliant victory here over the combined French and Imperialists in the Seven Years' war.

P. 82. "Coup d'état" (koo-day-tah'). A bold stroke of policy or brilliant piece of statesmanship, generally unconstitutional, executed suddenly and often accompanied by violence.

P. 83. "Advocat général." Attorney-general.

P. 84. "Bailliage." Bailiwick; the district comprised within a sheriff's or bailiff's jurisdiction.

P. 85. "Hôtel Dieu." (o-tel d'yer. Omit r sound.) The city hospital of Paris. The old buildings were destroyed by fire in 1772. The present buildings date from 1877.

"Doctrinaire." Theoretical, visionary, unpractical.

P. 88. "Les faits accomplis." Things already accomplished.

TOPICS OF THE HOUR.

WITH CURRENT EVENTS PROGRAMS.

[Note.—In the daily deluge of books and articles the average reader is hopelessly overwhelmed. Complete lists of references to current magazines and recent volumes are of value only to specialists. The busy person who wishes to be reasonably conversant with the leading questions of the day has no time for wide reading, and is too likely to be discouraged by an exhaustive "bibliography." THE CHAUTAUQUAN will seek to serve its subscribers by calling attention each month to a list of representative books, and typical articles which deal with the different phases of some one topic of current interest. The Current Events Programs are prepared for the use of clubs, college and other literary societies, women's clubs and organizations desiring direction for current events courses.]

I.—PARTY GOVERNMENT IN ENGLAND, FRANCE, AND THE UNITED STATES.

INTRODUCTORY.—Governments, when classed as to the relation of the legislature to the executive, are either parliamentary or presidential. When the state, the sovereign, places the entire control of the administration of law into the hands of the legislature, and gives it the power of originating and terminating the tenure, and likewise of limiting the prerogatives of the executive, the government is parliamentary. If, on the other hand, the sovereign gives the executive independence in his tenure, and constitutional means by which he can prevent encroachments of the legislature upon his prerogatives, the government is presidential. Classed on this basis, the governments of England and France are parliamentary, while those of the United States and Germany are presidential. It is true that in France the president is not politically responsible to the legislature, and need not be politically in accord with it. However, the president is not the real executive of France. The constitution creates a politically responsible ministry; it vests it with all executive functions, and requires that every act of the president shall be countersigned by a minister. The president is not only deprived of executive functions, but he is also denied the constitutional means necessary for defending his prerogatives from attack by the majority of the legislature. It is also true that in England the law attributes certain executive powers to the crown; among these are the right of absolute veto on the acts of parliament, and right of calling, adjourning and proroguing that body. These powers are only nominal. The crown has not made use of the veto since 1707; and the calling, adjourning and proroguing of parliament is done by the ministry, which is composed of the leaders of the majority party in the House of Commons. The ministry is the "supreme committee" of this majority, and is charged with the control of all foreign and domestic affairs of the nation.

It is evident from this that party government can exist only under a parliamentary one. Such a government is impossible in the United States. Here the executive and legislature are independent. The majority in the legislature may be politically opposed to the executive without its affecting either his tenure or prerogatives. He cannot be politically responsible to it. The constitution fixes his tenure, defines his powers and provides him with means for defending his prerogatives from encroachments by the legislature. It is true that men speak of the "party in power" in the United States. They probably mean the party to which the president belongs, and do not intend to imply party government in the sense the words are used in England and France.

ENGLAND.

1. *The origin of the cabinet.*

Thomas B. Macaulay. "The History of England from the Accession of James II." Five volumes. Vol. I., pp. 197, 198. A brief but excellent account. John Richard Green, "History of the English People." Four volumes. Vol. III., p. 369. Samuel R. Gardiner. "A Student's History of England," p. 660. Jesse Macy, "The English Constitution," pp. 338-345. Woodrow Wilson, "The State," sec. 856 (revised edition).

2. *The rise of cabinet government.*

Gardiner, pp. 649-744. H. St. Clair Fielden, "A Short Constitutional History of England," pp. 48-51 (revised edition). H. W. Trail, "Central Government" (English Citizens Series), pp. 23-25. Macy, pp. 345-374. Wilson, sec. 857. Alpheus Todd, "Parliamentary Government in England." Two volumes. This is an exhaustive treatment of the origin, development and practical operation of parliamentary government. In Vol. I., Chapter III., the author sketches the various administrations from 1782 to 1786.

3. *The nature of cabinet government.*

John Morley, "Walpole." (Twelve English Statesmen Series.) P. 154. Mr. Morley gives the following

as the characteristics of cabinet government at the present day: "1. The collective responsibility by members of the cabinet. 2. The cabinet is answerable immediately to the House of Commons and ultimately to the electors. 3. The cabinet is exclusively selected from one party. 4. The supremacy of the prime minister." Fielden, pp. 51-52. Macy, pp. 21-23. Green III., p. 407. Wilson, secs. 686-694. Todd, Vol. I., Chapter III. Thomas P. Taswell-Langmead, "English Constitutional History," Chapters XVI.-XVII. Professor E. A. Freeman in his "Essays," first series, points out the differences between cabinet and presidential governments; Walter Bagehot, in his "English Constitution," gives a long argument against the presidential system of the United States in favor of the cabinet system; and Edmund Burke (Works, Vol. V., pp. 1-63) discusses in a controversial spirit the nature of party government.

4. *The origin and history of parties.*

Party government in the strictest sense cannot be said to have been established until the reign of George I. As he was "too indolent and too foreign" to be competent for his task, "it devolved on one of the ministry, who acquired the name of Prime Minister, and who became responsible for the general work of those who became his subordinates. In this way

cabinet government gradually came into being." Then arose the struggles of the eighteenth century for party supremacy. George W. Cooke, "The History of Party." Three volumes. It traces the history of the Whigs and Tories from the Restoration to the passing of the Reform Bill in 1832. A valuable work, but has strong Whig prejudices. Thomas Erskine May, "The Constitutional History of England Since the Accession of George III., 1760-1860." Two volumes. A clear account of the origin, principles, and history of parties down to 1860 is given in Chapter VIII. Macy treats of the beginnings of parties (Chapter XXVII.), their composition (Chapter XXXII.), and of their history prior to the Reform Bill (Chapter XLII).

Magazine Articles.—

- Dacey, A. V. "Parliamentary Government and Government by Parliament." *Nation*, vol. 46: 464.
 Godkin, E. L. "Parliamentary Government." *Nation*, 12: 101.
 Greg, P. "Party System in England." *National*, 5: 158.
 Kebbel, T. E. "Party Government in England." *Nineteenth Century*, 24: 227.
 Kittrell, T. G. "Government by Party." *American Journal of Political Science*, 5: 295.
 Laughton, A. W. "Government by Party." *Westminster Review*, 142: 361.
 Morse, A. D. "What is a Government by Party?" *Political Science Quarterly*, 11: 68.
 Newman, F. W. "Parliamentary Government." *Fortnightly Review*, 21: 328.
 Richardson, C. "Government by Party." *Annals of the American Academy of Political Science*, 2: 518, 653.
 Roylance-Kent, C. B. "The Future of Parliamentary Government." *Macmillan's Magazine*, 68: 102.
 Selborne on "Party Government." *Saturday Review*, 63: 39.
 Waring, G. E., Jr. "Government by Party." *North American Review*, 163: 587.
 White, H. "Parliamentary Government in America." *Fortnightly*, 32: 505.

FRANCE.

1. Government by the chambers.

The constitutional status under which French government has degenerated into "government by mass meeting;" the differentiation between legislative procedure in England and France, and the double relation of ministers as cabinet and council to president and chambers, are succinctly presented in Woodrow Wilson's "The State," secs. 394-435. See also Emile Bontmy, "Studies in Constitutional Law: France—England—United States." Translated from the French by E. M. Dacey.

2. Parliamentary system and political parties.

- J. E. Courtenay, "France," Vol. II., Books III. and IV., presents the results of seven years' study in France. An exceedingly valuable study by an Englishman; gives reasons why (two) party system has not succeeded in France.
 "Political Parties, French," *International Encyclopedia*.

Magazine Articles.—

- "Political History of France Since the Restoration." *Quarterly Review*, London, 43: 564.
 Currier, F. A. "French Character in Politics." *CHATAUQUAN*, 24: 267-72 (S.)
 Conway, J. J. "American and French Constitutions Compared." *Arena*, 18: 49-56 (Jl.)

- Taylor, H., "Powers of the French President." *North American Review*, 164: 129-38 (F.)
 Naquet, A., "The French Electoral System." *North American Review*, vol. 155.
 Coubertin, Baron Pierre de. "The Present Problems and Politics of France." *Review of Reviews*, 18: 186-94 (Aug.)

UNITED STATES.

1. The origin of political parties.

- Henry Jones Ford, "The Rise and Growth of American Politics," Chapter VII. Martin Van Buren, "Inquiry into the Origin and Growth of Political Parties in the United States." James Schouler, "History of the United States." Five volumes. Vol. I., pp. 48-58. Alexander Johnston, "American Politics," pp. 3-7. John Fiske, "The Critical Period of American History," p. 308.

2. The history of parties.

- J. P. Gordy, "A History of Political Parties in the United States." Three volumes. Van Buren, Lator's "Cyclopedia of Political Science, Political Economy, and American History," and articles by Alexander Johnston on the American, Anti-Federal, Anti-Masonic, Constitutional Union, Democratic, Republican, Federal, Greenback, Labor, Liberal Republican, Republican and Whig parties. Also article on "Party Government in the United States," by Talcott Williams. Justin Winsor, editor, "Narrative and Critical History of America." Eight volumes. (A series of essays written by specialists.) Essay by Alexander Johnston, "The History of Political Parties, 1789-1850." J. W. Hammond, "The History of the Political Parties in the State of New York from the Ratification of the Federal Constitution to December, 1840." (Written from a Democratic point of view.) James Bryce, "The American Commonwealth," Chapter LIII.

3. The development of the nominating system.

- (a) *The caucus system.* Lator. Article by Frederick W. Whitridge. Vol. I., pp. 357-364. Also article by Alexander Johnston. *Ibid.*, pp. 355-357. Frederick W. Dallinger, "Nominations for Elective Offices in the United States," pp. 1-27. Edward Stanwood, "A History of Presidential Elections," pp. 32, 49, 52, 53, 58, 65, 70, 79, 81, 83. Ford, pp. 8, 155, 165, 199. Woodrow Wilson, "Congressional Government," p. 247.
 (b) *The convention system.* Dallinger, pp. 36-45. Ford, Chapter XVI. Bryce, Chapters LXIX-LXX. Wilson, "Congressional Government," pp. 245-247. (Dallinger discusses the abuses of the system in Chapter VI.)

4. The organization of parties.

- Ford, Chapter XXIII. Bryce, Chapter LIX. Dallinger, p. 44.

5. Rings, bosses and spoils.

- Bryce, Chapters LXIII-LXV., LXVIII. Ford, Chapter XXIV. Dallinger, pp. 109, 132. Lator. Article by Talcott Williams on Tammany Hall, Vol. III., pp. 850-856; and two articles by Dorman B. Eaton, (1) "The Spoils System," Vol. III., pp. 782-87; (2) "Civil Service Reform," Vol. I., pp. 478-485.

6. Party efficiency.

- Ford, Chapter XXV.

Magazine Articles.—

- Curtis, G. T. "Strong Government in the United States." *Harper's*, vol. 61, 101.

- Godkin, E. L. "How to Secure Rotation of Parties." *Nation*, vol. 31, 146.
- Godkin, E. L. "Educated Men in Politics." *Nation*, vol. 23, 5.
- Green, G. W. "Ethics of Party Loyalty." *Public Opinion*, vol. 20, 171.
- Greenhalge, F. T. "Practical Politics." *North American Review*, vol. 162, 154-9.
- Harvey, C. M. "The Origin of the Democratic Party." *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*, vol. 26, 526-530.
- Harvey, C. M. "The Origin of the Republican Party." *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*, vol. 25, 643-48.
- Hill, D. B. "The Future of the Democratic Party." *Forum*, vol. 22, 641-58.
- Thomas Jefferson on Parties, 1798. *The American Historical Review*, vol. 3, 4888-9.
- Kennedy, J. P. Speech on "The Origin of the Whig and Democratic Parties," *American Whig Review*, vol. 9, 6.
- "Machines in Practical Politics." *Outlook*, vol. 54, 1134.
- Palmer, J. M. "The National Democratic Party." *Independent*, vol. 48, 1355-6.
- "Politics in the United States in 1888." *Saturday Review*, vol. 66, 228.
- Stone, W. J. "The Democratic Party and its Future." *Forum*, vol. 25, 25-34.
- Sumner, W. G. "Political Parties in the United States, 1776-1876." *North American Review*, vol. 122, 47.
- Thorpe, F. N. "A Hundred Years' Campaign." *Harper*, vol. 94, 956.
- White, H. "Disintegration of Parties." *Nation*, vol. 27, 189.
- Wilcox, D. F. "Party Government in the Cities of New York State." *Political Science Quarterly*, vol. 14, 681.

POLITICAL PARTIES.

- Bluntschli, J. C., article on "Political Parties" in "Lalor's Cyclopaedia of Political Science." Definition; distinguished from factions; psychology of parties, etc.
- "Political Parties," Johnson's Encyclopedia.
- "Sovereignty in America, France and England," *The Spectator*, London, 80: 900 (June 25).
- Dickinson, Reginald, "Summary of the Constitution and Procedure of Foreign Parliaments."
- Lowell, A. Lawrence, "Governments and Parties in Continental Europe." 2 vols.
- Bradford, Gamaliel, "The Spirit of Party," Chap. XXI., vol. I., of "The Lesson of Popular Government."

CURRENT EVENTS PROGRAMS.

First Week —

1. Declamations: (1) Patrick Henry's speech before the Virginia Legislature. (2) Supposed speech of John Adams.
2. Essay: (1) Sketch of origin, history, fundamental tendencies and sources of strength of the Republican party. (2) Ditto; the Democratic party. (3) Digest of political party platforms in the presidential campaign of 1900.
3. Oration: (1) George Washington, the choice of all parties. (2) Alexander Hamilton and Aaron Burr: the Statesman vs. the Politician.
4. Debate: (1) Resolved, That the existence of political parties is not essential to the just and successful operation of a democratic government.
 - (a) Two in affirmative.
 - (b) Two in negative.

Second Week —

1. Declamations: (1) Extracts Webster's reply to Hayne. (2) Extracts Lincoln's speech at Gettysburg.
2. Essay: (1) Sketch of origin, history, fundamental tendencies and sources of strength of the Populist party. (2) Ditto; the Socialist party. (3) The part which women should take in the presidential campaign.
3. Oration: (1) The philosophy of partisanship. (2) Abraham Lincoln and his ideals; or principle above party expediency.
4. Debate: (1) Resolved, That United States senators should be elected by direct vote of the people. Or, (2) Resolved, That the British system of responsible cabinet ministers possessing the privileges of the floor in parliament is preferable to the United States system of government by congressional committees.

Third Week —

1. Declamation: (1) Extracts from The Lincoln-Douglas debate. (2) Ingersoll's speech nominating Blaine in the National Republican Convention of 1880.
2. Essay: (1) The party primary and the party caucus and their relation to good government. (2) The working machinery of a political party in a national campaign.
3. Oration: (1) Civil service reform. (2) Civic federations and their influence on political action.
4. Debate: Resolved, That the interests of the people would be better subserved by laws enacted by direct vote of the people, through the initiative and referendum, rather than by the present representative system of law making.

Fourth Week —

1. Declamations: (1) Speech of Bourke Cochran in the National Democratic Convention of 1892. (2) Speech of W. J. Bryan in the National Democratic Convention of 1896.
2. Essay: (1) The division of parties in the house of congress and its effect on legislation. (2) The political parties of the United States, England, and France; a comparison of their policies and tendencies.
3. Oration: (1) Educational and property tests for voting. (2) The relation of social reform to political machinery.
4. Debate: Resolved, "That the present American political system of choosing representatives to the law-making branch from the majority faction alone is inimical to good government and incompatible with just principles of a republic and should be supplanted by the so-called system of 'proportional representation.'"

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Treasurer—L. A. Clapp, Rochester, N. Y.

Trustee—Wm. G. Lightfoote, Canandaigua, N. Y.

Manager—Carrie A. Nutt, North Beverly, Mass.

Class Flower—Pansy.

CLASS OF 1886.—"THE PROGRESSIVES."

"We study for light to bless with light."

President—Miss Sara M. Soule, Claverack, N. Y.

First Vice-president—Mrs. Merritt, Silver Creek, N. Y. Second Vice-president—Mrs. Kate Weimert, Buffalo, N. Y. Third Vice-president—Mrs. Luella Knight, Chicago, Ill. Fourth Vice-president—Mrs. A. H. Roberts, Baltimore, Md. Fifth Vice-president—Mrs. Wm. Schnurr, Warren, Pa.

Secretary—Mrs. Mary V. Rowley, Cleveland, O.

Treasurer—Mrs. Amy S. Travis, Washington, D. C.

Trustee—Mrs. R. E. Burrows, Andover, N. Y.

Post—Mrs. Emily Huntington Miller, Evanston, Ill.

CLASS OF 1885.—"THE INVINCIBLES."

"Press on, reaching after those things which are before."

President—Mrs. A. H. Chance, Vineland, N. J.

First Vice-president—Mrs. E. A. Hatfield, Evanston, Ill. Second Vice-president—E. C. Dean, Delhi, N. Y.

Treasurer—Mrs. M. L. Ensign, Chautauqua, N. Y.

Secretary—Mrs. T. J. Bentley, Springboro, Pa.

Class Flower—Heliotrope.

CLASS OF 1884.—"THE IRREPRESSIBLES."

"Press forward; he conquers who will."

President—Rev. Wm. D. Bridge, 67 Sussex avenue, East Orange, N. J.

Vice-presidents—Mrs. E. J. L. Baker, Chautauqua, N. Y.; Mrs. S. E. Parker, Chautauqua, N. Y.; Mrs. J. C. Park, Cincinnati, O.; Mr. Dexter Horton, Seattle, Wash.; Mr. G. W. Miner, Fredonia, N. Y.; Mr. John Fairbanks, Seattle, Wash.

Recording Secretary—Mrs. Adelaide L. Westcott, Holley, N. Y.

Corresponding Secretary—Miss Nellie Stone, Oswego, N. Y.

Treasurer—Miss M. E. Young, Chautauqua, N. Y.

Executive Committee—Mrs. S. E. Parker, Chautauqua, N. Y.; Mrs. Matthews, Gerry, N. Y.; Miss Clara Smith, Carlisle, Pa.; Mrs. W. D. Bridge, East Orange, N. J.; Miss Fowler, Wheeling, W. Va.; Mrs. W. W. Ross, Erie, Pa.

Trustees—Wm. D. Bridge, East Orange, N. J.; Miss M. E. Young, Chautauqua, N. Y.; Mrs. E. J. L. Baker, Chautauqua, N. Y.; Mr. George Miner, Fredonia, N. Y.; Mrs. S. E. Parker, Chautauqua, N. Y.

Class Flower—The Goldenrod.

CLASS OF 1883.—"THE VINCENTS."

"Step by step we gain the heights."

President—Miss Anna H. Gardner, 106 Chandler street, Boston, Mass.

First Vice-president—Governor Atkinson, W. Va.

Second Vice-president—Mrs. Watts, Louisville, Ky.

Third Vice-president—Miss Millken, Warren, O.

Secretary—Mrs. Wm. Thomas, Meadville, Pa.

Treasurer—Miss Eddy, Chautauqua, N. Y.

Assistant Treasurer—Mrs. Wm. Thomas, Meadville, Pa.

Class Flower—Sweet Pea.

CLASS OF 1882.—"THE PIONEERS."

"From height to height."

President—Mrs. B. T. Vincent, Greeley, Colo.

Vice-presidents—Mr. A. M. Martin, Chautauqua, N. Y.; Dr. J. L. Hurlbut, New York City; Mrs. F. O. Bailey, Jamestown, N. Y.; Miss May Wightman, Pittsburgh, Pa.; Professor H. S. Jacoby, Ithaca, N. Y.

Secretary—Mrs. John C. Martin, New York City.

Treasurer—Mrs. A. D. Wilder, Chautauqua, N. Y.

Trustees—Mr. A. D. Wilder, Chautauqua, N. Y.; Mrs. Milton Bailey, Jamestown, N. Y.; Miss Anna Cummings, Chautauqua, N. Y.

Class Symbol—The Hatchet.

GRADUATE ORDERS.

THE ORDER OF THE WHITE SEAL.

President—Rev. Thomas Cardis, Rochester, N. Y.

Vice-president—Mrs. Hopper, Claremont, Can.

Secretary—Miss Butcher, Aurora, Can.

LEAGUE OF THE ROUND TABLE.

President—Mrs. A. H. Chance, Vineland, N. J.

First Vice-president—Mr. W. H. Westcott, Holley, N. Y. Second Vice-president—Miss R. W. Brown, Brooklyn, N. Y. Third Vice-president—Mrs. Hard, East Liverpool, O.

Secretary and Treasurer—Mrs. Peters, Washington, D. C.

Executive Committee—Miss M. C. Hyde; Miss C. E. Whaley, Pomeroy, O.; Miss Mary W. Kimball, N. Y.

GUILD OF THE SEVEN SEALS.

President—Mr. A. M. Martin, Chautauqua, N. Y.

First Vice-president—Mrs. Geo. B. McCabe, Toledo, O. Second Vice-president—Mrs. Lillian Clark, Andover, N. Y.

Secretary and Treasurer—Miss Anna H. Gardner, 106 Chandler street, Boston, Mass.

Executive Committee—Mrs. Luella Knight, Chicago, Ill.; Mrs. W. H. Westcott, Holley, N. Y.; Miss M. E. Landfear, New Haven, Conn.

ALUMNI HALL ASSOCIATION.

President—Mr. W. H. Westcott, Holley, N. Y.

Vice-president—Miss M. A. Bortle, Dayton, O.

Secretary and Treasurer—John A. Seaton, 103 Glen Park Place, Cleveland, O.

Building Committee—W. H. Westcott, Holley, N. Y.; George E. Vincent, Chicago, Ill.; John A. Seaton, Cleveland, O.

All C. L. S. C. classes who are still raising their quota toward the building fund of Alumni Hall will please remit as much and as soon as possible to the treasurer, Mr. John A. Seaton, 103 Glen Park Place, Cleveland, O. Funds are needed to make contract for further work on halls and stairways this fall and winter. "No money, no work."

SUMMER ASSEMBLIES FOR 1900.

CHAUTAUQUA, NEW YORK.

The twenty-seventh season of the original Chautauqua Assembly takes rank as one of the most successful in the history of the institution. The general program began on Wednesday, June 27, and, continuing for a period of eight weeks, closed on Thursday, August 23.

The summer schools, with a faculty of more than seventy instructors, held a six weeks' session from July 7 to August 17. The attendance in these schools exceeded that of any previous year, the total number of students being about 2,500. This gain is significant in view of the fact that the attendance of New York State teachers was slightly less than usual owing to the recent establishment of a state institute at Cornell.

Among the new features of the Department of Instruction were the Vacation School under the direction of teachers from the University of Chicago Elementary School, and the enlargement and thorough organization of the School of Domestic Science under Mrs. Alice Peloubet Norton, of Boston.

The assembly program provided every week two courses of lectures on the university extension plan, each consisting usually of five lectures. Among the lecturers giving these courses were Professor Moses Coit Tyler, Miss Elizabeth S. Kinkead, Professor Alexander S. Chessin, Miss Jane Addams, Bliss Perry, editor of *The Atlantic Monthly*, Professor John Dewey, Mr. Alleyne Ireland, President G. Stanley Hall, President Benjamin Ide Wheeler, Inspector J. L. Hughes, E. H. Griggs and Professor F. M. Warren.

On C. L. S. C. Recognition Day the annual address was given by President A. V. V. Raymond, of Union College. The daily Devotional Hour was under the direction each week of one of the following leaders: Professor Henry W. King, Dr. J. W. Chapman, Professor Graham Taylor, Dr. W. B. Pickard, Bishop J. M. Thoburn, Professor Lincoln Hulley, Dr. Gross Alexander.

Miscellaneous lectures, C. L. S. C. Round Tables, illustrated lectures, readings and entertainments all found their place in the program. The grand chorus of more than five hundred voices under the direction of Dr. H. R. Palmer gave a large number of concerts and was an important element in the

weekly song service held on Sunday evenings.

One of the most interesting and impressive events of the season was the laying of the cornerstone of the Hall of the Christ at seven in the evening on the anniversary of "Old First Night," a cable message being received from the absent chancellor, Bishop Vincent, "Heaven bless building and builders."

The various clubs contributed their share to the social and intellectual life of the community. The Woman's Club, under the direction of Mrs. B. T. Vincent, of Colorado, held earnest and spirited discussions upon many important topics. The Young Women's Outlook Club, led by Miss Mary E. Merington, was largely attended and thoroughly pervaded by a strong club spirit. The Boys' Club, under Dr. J. H. Babbitt, enrolled more than two hundred energetic youths who enjoyed thoroughly their new club house with its gymnasium, reading-room and other valuable features. The Girls' Club, in charge of Miss Helen Bainbridge, though not the fortunate possessors of a club house, made the most of their limited quarters and started subscription papers among the friends of Chautauqua young people, which will result before long, it is hoped, in a suitable home for the club. The C. L. S. C. Council held daily meetings during August, and proved a successful clearing-house for ideas from members of the Circle. The German and French clubs were very popular among the students of modern languages. All of these organizations, through their receptions given at various times during the season, added materially to the social spirit of the town.

Every state in the union and many foreign countries were represented. The attendance from the south is always large and it was proposed next year to have special Southern headquarters at the Baptist House.

Several representatives from other assemblies were present at Chautauqua at different times during the season: Rev. S. W. Stophlett, president of the assembly at Winfield, Kansas; Mr. L. E. McGinnis, leader of the Round Table department of the Pennsylvania Chautauqua at Mt. Gretna; and Mrs. Minnie D. Louis, national field secretary of the Jewish Chautauqua Society.

In July the District Epworth League Convention of West Virginia and Pennsylvania held its annual conference at Chautauqua.

The Society of Friends also held their biennial meeting at Chautauqua from the 21st to the 28th of August. Some fifteen hundred Friends were in attendance at the latter meeting, many of them coming early enough in the season to improve the advantages offered by the schools and general program.

Material additions to the health and comfort of the assembly grounds are to be noted in the new water supply secured by the sinking of artesian wells on the high hill west of Chautauqua, the opening up of the south "Overlook" region for building sites, and the construction of a new power house with increased facilities for lighting the grounds. Other improvements are already being planned to be made during the coming fall and winter.

ATLANTIC CITY, NEW JERSEY — THE JEWISH CHAUTAUQUA.

The fourth annual assembly of the Jewish Chautauqua, held at Atlantic City July 15-29, exceeded in enthusiasm and earnestness the preceding ones. The regular morning sessions were given to a complete course of lectures on the period of Jewish history corresponding with that of the circle study of the past year. In connection with this, lectures were given by Mr. Joseph Jacobs, of London, England, author of many books on folklore, on "The Jews of Angevin England," etc. The afternoons were given to the classes of the summer school, introduced for the first time. Instruction was given in Hebrew, in "The Bible as a Text-Book," and in "The Principles of Pedagogy," applied to Sabbath-school work. This school proved most successful, numbering among its pupils rabbis and teachers, and arousing a general interest that gives promise of a much larger scope next year. Popular lectures of the highest rank were given by Governor Theodore Roosevelt and Professor Richard G. Moulton.

Circles from various cities in Missouri, Ohio, Indiana, Pennsylvania and New York were represented, and visitors from all parts thronged the Assembly Hall. An arrangement has been effected with the largest Jewish organization in this country, known as the order of B'nai B'rith, to extend the work of the Chautauqua among its numerous lodges, the initiative of which is a lecture course to begin the approaching fall.

In November, 1899, the office of national field secretary was created. Mrs. Minnie D. Louis, who was appointed to this position, reported at this last summer assembly the organization of fifteen new circles and the reorgan-

ization of three old ones, with fair indications of the formation of as many more in the thirty-one cities already visited.

The annual election of officers and trustees placed again in office all the former ones, except as president, Dr. Mark Blumenthal, of New York, who succeeds Hon. Simon Wolf, of Washington, and as trustees Mr. Jacob H. Schiff, of New York, and Mr. Sol. Hirsch, of Portland, Oregon.

ASHLAND, OREGON.

The eighth annual session of the Southern Oregon Chautauqua Association, which closed July 21, was the most successful one yet held. Dr. Thomas McClary, Congressman Landis, of Indiana; Chaplain Gilbert, of the Second Oregon; Mrs. Abigail Scott-Duniway and Dr. J. H. Kerr were the principal speakers. Mr. Alton Packard, of Dayton, Ohio, proved most acceptable both as lecturer and caricaturist. The Metropolitan Jubilee Singers gave variety to the program. Professor W. J. Whiteman, of Denver, Colorado, had charge of the chorus classes, the junior class having one hundred and ten voices. The work done in this department was excellent. Mrs. W. J. Whiteman and Mrs. C. B. Dexter proved most excellent solo singers, and the attendance was gratifying throughout the entire assembly.

BAY VIEW, MICHIGAN.

At the Bay View Assembly the program has been of a higher order than ever before, with the result that the attendance has been much larger than usual. The most important new feature of the assembly has been the addition of a sixteen-piece orchestra, which has proved a great attraction and has afforded much pleasure to the music-loving people upon the grounds.

The summer school was well attended, the character of the work being about the same as in other years. It is the intention of the management to make great improvements in this department. Professor Chas. E. Barr, of Albion College, has just been elected to the presidency, and his well-known skill and energy will undoubtedly bring the summer school into new prominence.

BEATRICE, NEBRASKA.

A very large attendance has been characteristic of this assembly throughout the past season. The result is a very satisfactory financial condition of affairs, and, as might be expected, the social side of the assembly has been unusually strong. The program presented a list of important speakers, and class work was carried on as usual.

More interest was shown in the C. L. S. C. than ever before, and there was a large attendance at the Round Tables. Thirteen graduates of the C. L. S. C. Class of 1900 were present on Recognition Day, and in the evening a reception was given to graduates and friends.

BIG STONE LAKE, SOUTH DAKOTA.

The assembly at Big Stone this year was a pronounced success in every way; attendance uniformly large, not a single failure in the program, interest in every department unflagging, and gate receipts one thousand dollars in advance of last year. The states of Minnesota and South Dakota have united in conducting a large and finely-equipped summer school, with instructors from the state university, under the personal supervision of Professors Keefe and Ramer. Over three hundred teachers were in attendance.

All women's work was placed in charge of the leader of the Women's Club, with these attractive divisions: Missionary Days, W. C. T. U. Institute, Parents' School, and Young Women's Outlook Club. The C. L. S. C. was given a most prominent place, and such interest was awakened that the attendance at times reached three hundred. Definite work by way of review and preview was done on the Chautauqua Reading Courses. Mr. Cattern, of the Chautauqua Bureau of Extension, was present during a part of the season. Addresses on reform movements were given by Mrs. Maude Ballington Booth and others. A large class was organized for 1904. Bible lectures by Dr. Thomas Nicholson awakened great enthusiasm. The Monday excursions were an innovation, but bid fair to be a permanent feature of the seasons.

CARMEL GROVE, NEW YORK.

Carmel Grove camp grounds, near Binghamton, New York, have been greatly improved in their material aspects, and simultaneously the scope of the meetings has been broadened so as to embrace the Chautauqua idea. Chiefly are these improvements due to the enterprise of President Reed B. Freeman. The assembly and camp-meeting covered sixteen days, closing August 12. The most distinctive C. L. S. C. feature was the series of Round Tables conducted in a pleasing and very effective manner by Mrs. Arthur W. Alexander, president of the large circle of Centenary Church, Binghamton, New York. The beautiful reception parlors in which these meetings were held were filled to overflowing, and great interest was shown. Centenary

Circle will profit by new members, and it is certain that new circles will be organized this fall, both in Binghamton and in places adjacent. Those who assisted Mrs. Alexander in her interesting Table Talks were Mrs. A. W. Hayes, Mrs. J. L. Terwilliger, Mrs. W. J. Haskin, Dr. Louis Albert Banks, President J. H. Race, J. W. Russell and Rev. Henry Tuckley.

CARTHAGE, MISSOURI.

This assembly reports a very successful season and widespread interest in the surrounding territory. The program was under the general direction of Rev. George M. Brown, of Derby, Connecticut. The C. L. S. C. work came into great prominence and the Round Tables were largely attended. Miss Cora Mayerhoff was appointed C. L. S. C. secretary for the assembly, and many readers were interested. There are prospects of a circle in Joplin and other towns within a radius of fifty miles of the assembly.

CHESAPEAKE, MARYLAND.

The success of the new Chesapeake Chautauqua Assembly has been remarkable. Old Bay Ridge, which had degenerated as a seaside resort, has been completely transformed into a moral, intellectual and religious community. The Chautauqua program lasted for four weeks, beginning the middle of July. Many prominent speakers appeared on the platform, and the entertainment features of the season included Shakespearean, dramatic and humorous readings, music, illustrated lectures, etc. In addition to the general program, a series of summer-school courses was instituted, and this promises to become an important element in the assembly's equipment. C. L. S. C. work was introduced and new members enrolled, with large plans for the development of the work next year.

CONNECTICUT VALLEY — NORTHAMPTON, MASSACHUSETTS.

Many improvements are already in contemplation for the assembly at Laurel Park. The success of the present session, at which the attendance exceeded that of many previous years, has given the management confidence to enlarge their work. The program presented a strong array of speakers, and the usual class work was carried through with excellent results. C. L. S. C. Recognition Day passed off with the usual attractive features, the weather contributing materially to its success. The Recognition Day address

was delivered by President Crawford, of Allegheny College, and in the afternoon at five o'clock the annual banquet of Chautauquans was held in Normal Hall. The attendance at the Sunday-school normal classes showed the importance which is attached to this feature of the assembly, and the C. L. S. C. Round Tables, under the direction of Professor Evans, occupied an important place in the literary part of the program. The new Class of 1904 was well represented at the assembly, and many new circles will be organized in the adjacent territory.

EPWORTH PARK, BARNESVILLE, OHIO.

The tenth annual session of Epworth Park Assembly, under the direction of Rev. M. J. Slutz, included the usual features which have made this resort a popular one to a large constituency. The educational quality of the program was even more marked than usual, and many able lectures were presented. The devotional services are a distinctive feature of this assembly and were held daily at 10 in the morning. Much attention was also given to the discussion of social problems, the discussion being conducted by Rev. W. B. Pickard, D. D. The auditorium has recently been enlarged so that it is now possible for the assembly to accommodate comfortably its large audiences. Further improvements are contemplated for the coming year, and the steady progress of the work seems assured.

FINDLEY LAKE, NEW YORK.

Few years have been more perfect for the assembly than this one. The program has dealt with ancient and modern history, more especially American history. The topics of the day have been debated thoroughly by able speakers brought from all parts of the country. Manila Day, Political Day and Farmer's Day are entirely new features of the program. Political Day was the great day of the season. The forenoon was occupied by a Democratic speaker, the afternoon by Republican and Prohibition speakers. Farmer's Day also attracted great numbers. The summer-school courses were more extensive than last year, and better work was done. The C. L. S. C. is making progress and shows every indication of growth during the fall and winter seasons. The buildings are in excellent condition, so that no new buildings have been absolutely necessary. The directors have very wisely put all surplus money upon the program. The officers of previous years have been retained.

HAVANA, ILLINOIS.

The ten-day session of this assembly achieved many successes, in spite of the intense heat which occurred just at this time. A stirring political debate occupied two days of the convention, when both sides of the "Expansion" question were presented by able leaders. Several distinguished lecturers appeared upon the platform, among them Dr. J. P. D. John and Rev. E. F. Lyon. Readings by Mrs. Nellie Peck Loundes were also received with great favor. The usual Bible-class work was conducted and also the daily C. L. S. C. Round Tables. The closing entertainment of the season, the exhibition of liquid air, aroused great interest and drew many to the assembly.

ISLAND PARK — ROME CITY, INDIANA.

The Island Park Assembly closed its twenty-second annual session August 16, this year giving a full program for twenty-one consecutive days. It was exceptionally strong in its educational features. The Biblical department was in the hands of the Rev. W. F. Harding, D. D., of Michigan. The music was conducted by Prof. R. Clark Hubbard. The elocution and physical culture departments were superintended by Miss Ella Keel, and the kindergarten was under the careful direction of Miss Jessie Goodwin; the C. L. S. C. and Round Table work was in the charge of Miss Mary Warner, and the W. C. T. U. department had the excellent supervision of Mrs. Mary E. Balch, the efficient president of the Indiana State Union. The attendance in all the departments was much larger than noted for years. The evangelistic and religious features were of unusual interest and power. C. L. S. C. Day was one of the great occasions of the assembly, though but four graduates received diplomas. A number of new names have been enrolled and the organization plans will be carried forward by J. F. Snyder, the assembly field secretary. The general prospects for the future success of the assembly were never better. It is proposed to begin the publication of an *Island Park Assembly Journal* in the very near future.

LAKE CHETEK, WISCONSIN.

The Chetek Assembly has been more fortunate than some similar institutions in that its programs have been carried out each year without a break. Everything has been exactly as advertised. Dr. H. C. Jennings, who was superintendent the first year and planned the program two years, was

gladly welcomed this season to preach on Sunday afternoon. The department work was in four divisions, musical, biblical, normal, and C. L. S. C. The management expects to add other departments next year. The C. L. S. C. idea is taking root. As a result of Round Table work, circles will be established in three or four towns, twenty or more persons having given their names to the secretary as beginners in the four years' course. Superintendent C. W. Meadows, of Chetek, is to be congratulated on the successful carrying out of his excellent program. To him, to President C. C. Cole, of Rice Lake, and their colleagues, much credit is due for their unflagging zeal in maintaining this pioneer of northwestern Wisconsin assemblies.

LAKE CONTRARY, MISSOURI.

The new assembly held at Lake Contrary promises to become a permanent institution. Its proximity to the city of St. Joseph insures it the support of the people of that city, and the projectors of the assembly have wisely laid stress upon the educational character of the gathering, and kept this important part of the work well to the front. Popular lectures by able speakers were given throughout the session, and daily Bible study of a very high order was conducted by Rev. Charles English. Mr. English also took the direction of the C. L. S. C. Round Tables, and the result is a local reading circle for the city of St. Joseph and the enrolment of members from other towns in the vicinity, so that an increasing constituency is likely to result in bringing to the assembly the support of those who are interested in the more serious part of its work.

LAKE MADISON, SOUTH DAKOTA.

The tenth assembly program of the Lake Madison Chautauqua was carried out with complete success, a most profitable session resulting and the gate receipts being sufficient to meet all expenses. The loyalty of patrons and friends has made this assembly a recognized feature of the educational life of South Dakota. The program discussed topics of educational, political and religious interest. The students in the various classes worked with energy and attention. The assembly chorus rendered splendid service, and the biblical work, under the direction of Dr. E. E. Parks and Rev. R. N. Kratz, was maintained at its usual high standard. The Outlook Club is now an important feature of this assembly, and at the C. L. S. C. Round Tables the serv-

ices of Miss Walter, of College Hill, Ohio, and Professor Yoder, of Vincennes University, were very greatly appreciated. Mr. Cattern, of the Bureau of Extension, of Cleveland, visited the assembly and took part in the Round Table work.

LAKE ORION, MICHIGAN.

Lake Orion Assembly, which is beautifully situated at Orion, Michigan, has recently closed its third season. It has conducted a ten days' Bible school, in charge of W. R. Newell, of Chicago, and H. B. Gibbud, of Springfield, Massachusetts; a summer school with ten departments for five weeks, Professor F. S. Goodrich, registrar; and an assembly of twenty-two days. The attendance from beyond the local community was double that of last year. The new electric line from Detroit proved a great help, and its extension to Flint before next season means a vastly increased constituency. The Michigan Central Railroad also encourages the enterprise. Much C. L. S. C. literature was distributed, and many new students were enrolled. The presence of Professor Geo. E. Vincent gave special character to the exercises of Recognition Day. A large enrolment from this locality is anticipated for the coming year.

LANCASTER, OHIO.

An unusually large number of Chautauquans have been in attendance upon the assembly at Lancaster this year, and the result is a very great increase in interest in the work of the reading circle. Many new readers were enrolled in the Class of 1904, and the cooperation of Mr. Cattern, director of the Chautauqua Bureau of Extension, who spent a few days at the assembly, was greatly appreciated. Rev. John F. Grimes, of Groveport, Ohio, has charge of the Round Tables. Important schools of various kinds were carried on during the assembly, including the school of oratory, the ministers' institute, the school of normal methods, the kindergarten classes, etc. The general program included the names of many able speakers, and the music was of a superior order. The whole encampment was pervaded by a spirit of enthusiasm and good cheer. The entire board of managers was reelected. All of this speaks well for the future progress of the institution.

LEXINGTON, KENTUCKY.

The Kentucky Chautauqua held its fourteenth annual session at Woodland Park, a beautiful park adjoining the city of Lexing-

ton. The assembly was successful from every point of view, and a large number of able speakers took part in the program. The delightful social features of the camp, which are distinctive qualities of this assembly, contributed, as always, to the success of the meetings. A reception was held during the assembly for Mr. Cattern, the representative of the Chautauqua Bureau of Extension, and the new C. L. S. C. Class of 1904 enrolled a number of new members. It is possible that another season the assembly will hold its meeting in another part of the city, as Woodland Park is now to a large extent within the city limits and too valuable to hold. The city of Ashland made an effort to have the assembly located there in the future, but the Lexington Chautauquans declined to accept the proposition. The Chautauqua promises to enter upon a new career of prosperity.

LITHIA SPRINGS, ILLINOIS.

The tenth annual session of the Lithia Springs Assembly, August 8-27, did much more real Chautauqua work than any previous session in its history. During the twenty days' session classes were held in kindergarten, physical culture, voice culture, chorus singing, United States history and philosophy. The farmers' institute was conducted by Professor Eugene Davenport, dean of the Agricultural College of the state university. The W. C. T. U. held a school of methods. The Bible work was conducted by Dr. E. L. Eaton, of Des Moines, and the Round Tables were superintended by Miss Georgie Hopkins. A large number of speakers discussed important questions of the day. Professor George Vincent's visit to this assembly was an occasion of great interest, and his two lectures on "Crowds and Mobs" and "Personal Culture" aroused keenest interest and enthusiasm. The first diploma presented at this assembly to a C. L. S. C. graduate was given by him on Recognition Day, and a reception was held in his honor at Science Hall in the evening. Much enthusiasm was aroused in the C. L. S. C., and the assembly closed when the interest in all its work was at its height. The future success and prosperity of this important center seems assured.

LONG BEACH, CALIFORNIA.

The Long Beach assembly opened July 26 with a strong program. The various schools were organized promptly, and the results have been unusually satisfactory. The quality of the work, the enthusiasm of teachers and students and the large number of the latter

in attendance have made the present season a memorable one. The daily Round Tables brought together old Chautauquans and enlisted a large number of new readers. The enthusiasm for C. L. S. C. work was greater than for some years past. Owing to pressure of duties in the office of county superintendent, Professor A. L. Hamilton, who has served so faithfully and acceptably as the president of the assembly, was compelled to resign, a fact universally regretted. Professor George R. Crow was again elected to that place. He has been with the assembly from the beginning and is thoroughly awake to the needs of the work.

MARINETTE, WISCONSIN.

The Northern Chautauqua has this year carried out a very important program, beginning daily with devotional exercises at half-past eight, these being followed by the various schools from nine to twelve. Popular lectures both morning and afternoon, with Round Tables and special discussions of educational subjects, have attracted large numbers of visitors, and the evening entertainments have been satisfactory throughout. The morning class included biblical and church congresses, schools of oratory, physical culture and Delsarte, a department of domestic science and normal school kindergarten. Among the recreative features of the assembly a tennis tournament between the students of the University of Wisconsin and Northwestern aroused great interest. The owners of the large lumber mills in the vicinity of the assembly closed their plants, as heretofore, for half a day, giving the employes free tickets and paying for their time while in attendance at the assembly. This was done on Political Day when Governor Shaw, of Iowa, spoke for the Republicans, and Mayor Rose, of Milwaukee, for the Democrats.

MAYSVILLE, MISSOURI.

The assembly at Maysville continues to prosper. The interest has steadily increased and the program has been thoroughly creditable. Much prominence has been given to the work of the C. L. S. C. during the past season, and the address to the graduates, of whom there were four, was delivered by Dr. W. F. McMurray, of St. Joseph. Steps are being taken to organize the C. L. S. C. permanently in Maysville, and build up a strong department which will contribute much to the social and intellectual life of the assembly.

MIDLAND—DES MOINES, IOWA.

The program of the Midland Chautauqua Assembly held at Des Moines, Iowa, July 10-24, was an unusually good one. Dr. Hillis, Mrs. Booth, Professor Winship, Miss Shaw and other noted speakers attracted large and appreciative audiences. The attendance throughout the season was excellent, and although Music Day and some "best days" were stormy, the management report a small surplus after payment of all assembly expenses. The C. L. S. C. Round Tables, which were better attended than ever before, were conducted by the Chautauqua League of Des Moines, and the subjects chosen from C. L. S. C. readings were presented in an attractive manner. The Woman's Club department outgrew the large tent this year, and was obliged to hold some of its sessions in the auditorium. This department was in charge of Mrs. Frederick Weitz, president of the Des Moines City Federation of Woman's Clubs, and the association could not have made a better choice. The Home and Social Department, Mrs. Frederick Fowler, chairman, was a new feature, and proved very popular. The summer schools enrolled about the average number of students. The outlook for the C. L. S. C. is very favorable. On Recognition Day thirty-three graduates of the Class of 1900 received diplomas, and the new Class of 1904 promises a large enrolment. The results of the assembly are very satisfactory, and educationally the program left nothing to be desired. The general public took more interest than ever before, and the sentiment prevails that the permanence of the Midland Assembly is assured.

MONTEAGLE, TENNESSEE.

The Monteagle Assembly closed its eighteenth session on August 25. The Tennessee State Teachers' Association met in August, and more than three hundred teachers attended. Mr. W. T. Davis, the secretary of this association, has done good work. Mr. W. R. Payne, the business manager, has helped to make this the most successful year of the assembly. The program has been especially fine. The Sunday-school work, under Mrs. W. F. Crafts, is a prominent feature of this assembly. The ladies' association has been very successful. This association is composed of visitors here who pay one dollar a year for the privilege of becoming members. Two "pay entertainments" are allowed them each season, and they raise funds in many ways for im-

provements on the grounds. The C. L. S. C. is now under the especial care of this association. August 6 was Recognition Day, and much disappointment was felt at Bishop Vincent's inability to fill his engagement, for all Montegleans feel that Bishop Vincent belongs to them as well as to the parent Chautauqua. Dr. W. S. Currell, of Washington and Lee University, delivered the C. L. S. C. address, and as he has been the leader of a C. L. S. C. circle his address was full of Chautauqua enthusiasm. Mr. R. B. Reppard, a former president of the Monteagle Assembly, graduated in the class of 1900. At the meeting of the trustees the following officers were reelected: Maj. R. W. Millsaps, president; Dr. George Summey, superintendent of platform; Mr. W. R. Payne, business manager.

MONONA LAKE, WISCONSIN.

The Monona Lake Assembly grew out of and has taken the place of the Wisconsin Sunday-school convention, and, unlike many of its sister assemblies, has always confined its direct educational work to Sunday-school subjects. It has never aimed to be a summer school, in the generally accepted sense of the term. There are several reasons for this: First, the shortness of its session, only two weeks, renders any general course of study out of the question. Second, the management have felt that there was danger that, if other subjects were introduced, the Sunday-school work might be crowded into the background. Third, the University of Wisconsin, with its excellent facilities for summer study, is only two miles away and open to all who may wish advantages of this kind. The distinctly educational features of this year's assembly have therefore been:

- (1) The Sunday-school Teacher's Normal Class under the direction of Rev. Jas. A. Worden, D. D., who offered two courses of study, one in Old Testament history and biography, the other in Sabbath-school pedagogics.
- (2) The Children's Normal Class and the Summer School of Primary Methods, with Mrs. W. F. Crafts as principal, and Mrs. Margaret Jaeger and Miss Lilla M. Kushel as assistants.
- (3) The W. C. T. U. Institute, in charge of Mrs. W. H. Upham.
- (4) The C. L. S. C. Round Table.

All of these classes were well attended and enthusiastically supported. The program was of a high order of merit and was received with great appreciation. The assembly of 1900 is generally regarded as one of the most successful in the history of Monona.

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MOUNTAIN LAKE PARK, MARYLAND.

This famous assembly held its session from August 1 to 28. On the first day of August, the new and beautiful auditorium was opened with appropriate dedicatory services, a handsome souvenir program being prepared for the occasion. The building is a model in every particular, amphitheater in shape, and the acoustics are perfect. The twenty-five departments of school work were well patronized. The afternoon of the closing day was given over to a discussion of "Imperialism," between Congressman Champ Clark and Congressman Charles H. Grosvenor. It attracted ten thousand people, and was the greatest day in the history of Mountain Lake Park.

The receipts of the assembly just closed were thirty per cent in excess of any former year. Dr. W. L. Davidson, the superintendent, who for ten years has had charge of Mountain Lake Park and has had so much to do with its phenomenal growth, is receiving the warmest congratulations on every hand. This assembly is on the summit of the mountains, and enjoys an exceptional climate. Notwithstanding the intense heat of August in the cities, the thermometer did not touch a point beyond eighty-nine degrees during the entire month. The Round Tables were well attended and full of interest. Many Chautauqua readers were secured, and Recognition Day was an occasion of unusual interest.

MT. GRETN, PENNSYLVANIA.

The ninth annual assembly of the Pennsylvania Chautauqua, held from July 2 to August 8, 1900, compared very favorably with the high standard of meetings that preceded it.

The classes in German, French, botany and literature had a greater number of students than most of the others. An enthusiastic class in the study of parliamentary law was one of the new features of the department of instruction this year. The C. L. S. C. department was a prominent feature of the assembly. Several interesting Round Tables were held in the auditorium, attended by many who were not formerly interested in this important branch of the work. The exercises of Recognition Day were enjoyed by all. A prominent feature of the occasion was the able address by Hon. Marriot Brosius, member of congress from the tenth district of Pennsylvania. There were a goodly number of registrations to the C. L. S. C., several being from localities that are favorable centers for the formation of circles.

Doubtless one of the most marked features of this year's assembly was the interest developed along social lines. A women's club was organized, as was also a mothers' club. Their energies were largely directed to making the social life an auxiliary to the intellectual, and they met with considerable success. The permanent attendance at the park this season was greater than in any former year.

NEW ENGLAND—MONTWAIT, MASSACHUSETTS.

The twenty-second session of the New England Chautauqua at Montwait presented an interesting and varied program. The Bible work, under the direction of Dr. D. A. McClenahan, was received with great favor, and the C. L. S. C. Round Tables awakened anew the interest in this work, which is always strong at this assembly. Professor Grosvenor lectured on the Philippines and Imperialism. A large number of people were also attracted to the debate on the Boer question, held between Hon. George F. Hollis and James H. Stark, of Boston. Professor Raymond M. Alden delivered a series of lectures on Shakespeare. On Young People's Day Bishop J. W. Hamilton addressed the young people, his subject being "Tomorrow." Recognition Day was, as usual, an important day in the calendar, and a large number of graduates received diplomas. The annual banquet was held at the Hall of Philosophy at six o'clock, and informal addresses were given by Rev. William Full, Rev. Dr. Emerich and Miss Abba Gould Woolson. Naval Day was a marked occasion at the assembly. Hon. John D. Long, secretary of the navy, being the guest of honor. The assembly chorus, under the direction of Dr. Jules Gordon, as usual did very fine work, and the concerts were greatly enjoyed. The debt which has hung over the assembly for some years was entirely disposed of through the generosity of its friends.

NORTHERN NEW ENGLAND—FRYEBURG, MAINE.

The chief feature of the program at Fryeburg this year was the School of Methods held July 26–August 9.

Important series of lectures also found a place in the program, notably those upon the Bible by Dr. E. S. Stackpole, of Cambridge, and Dr. Lyman Abbott. Professor W. D. McClintock, of the University of Chicago, gave a series upon "The Interpretation of Literature," his closing lecture, on Browning's "Saul," being one of the most delight-

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ful events of the season. A large number of classes were held in connection with the assembly, and much excellent work was accomplished. The musical attractions were very prominent and met with hearty appreciation.

OCEAN GROVE, NEW JERSEY.

The sixteenth annual session of this popular assembly maintained its high standard of excellence. From the first the original work of the Sunday-school assembly has been kept well at the front, although as many as eighty diplomas have been given in a single year at Ocean Grove to members of the C. L. S. C. who had completed the four years' course of reading. Normal and biblical instruction in daily classes has been faithfully carried on, with written examinations at the close of each session and certificates awarded for proficiency. The C. L. S. C. Round Table work was in charge of the superintendent of instruction, B. B. Loomis, D. D., and much attention was given to the great advantages of such a carefully selected course of reading. The usual program of lectures, concerts and other entertainments was well sustained as a relief from more severe and solid pursuits.

OLD SALEM, ILLINOIS.

Although one of the newer assemblies, Old Salem, which is known as the Cumberland Presbyterian Chautauqua, has taken its place among the largest assemblies of the west. The program this year was strong and varied, and greatly appreciated not only by the great number of people who camped throughout the season upon the grounds, but also by those who came in from the outside. This Chautauqua has not introduced the C. L. S. C. work until this year, when it was presented with great effectiveness by Mrs. A. E. Shipley, the secretary for the state of Iowa, and Mrs. Shipley's address upon the "Educational View of the Chautauqua Movement" awakened deep interest. Another important feature of the assembly was the dedication of Lincoln Memorial Hall upon the grounds. The money for this memorial was raised last year during the session, when the Lincoln Memorial Association was formed. Near the site of the building Lincoln spent much of his early life.

OTTAWA, KANSAS.

The Ottawa Chautauqua Assembly held its twenty-second session at Forest Park, Ottawa—Kansas, July 9 to 20. Dr. Jesse L.

Hurlbut, who has been superintendent of instruction since 1881, was in charge this year, aided by the president, Rev. Dr. Northrop, of Kansas City. The grove is the finest in the state of Kansas, and with its hundreds of white tents dotting the green lawns under the old forest trees, presented a picturesque appearance. The Boys' Club, under the leadership of Professor Knowlton, took possession of a new building erected expressly for their use. The Girls' Club was also large in membership, and enthusiastic. Dr. Hurlbut conducted the Sunday-school teachers' normal class. Eight members of the Class of 1900, C. L. S. C., were present to receive their diplomas, and to listen to a magnificent recognition address by Dr. Hillis on "The Message of John Ruskin." The Chautauqua Round Table, held daily under the direction of Mrs. L. B. Kellogg, of Emporia, was one of the most interesting features of the assembly. Dr. A. A. Wright made the ministers' institute a popular feature; and the lectures on English literature by Professor Squires, of the University of South Dakota, were attended by at least six hundred people each day. The chorus was larger than for many years, and was led by Professor Chapman, of Cambridge, Massachusetts.

PACIFIC GROVE, CALIFORNIA.

The Chautauqua Assembly of Pacific Grove for 1900 has shown marked progress in several directions,—in the general program, attendance, and reawakening of enthusiasm in the work. The summer schools, the "Walks and Talks in Science," the nature-study class for teachers, and the work for children and young folks culminating in Young Folks' Day, were new and popular features, but the classes most largely attended were those in music and cookery.

The symposium upon China, conducted by Mrs. Myrtie Hudson Wagner and other missionaries returned from that country, was one of the most impressive features of the assembly. Mrs. Wagner was the only graduate in the first Chautauqua class resident on the Pacific Coast. She has been a most loyal child of her *alma mater*, and has carried the C. L. S. C. into the Chinese empire. The Chautauquans gave to her and Miss Lucy M. Washburn, the first secretary who laid the foundation of the work in California, a warm welcome, and their presence deepened the spirit of loyalty and fellowship in our Chautauqua host. A forward movement was made in the formation of an alumni association, the suggestion of President Dr.

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To this end all towns and cities in the United States and Canada are divided into seven classes, according to population:

CLASS ONE includes all cities of 200,000 inhabitants or over. In this class there are 28 prizes to be given away, the highest being \$500, the lowest \$5.00.

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CLASS FOUR includes all cities from 10,000 to 30,000 inhabitants. In this class there are 257 prizes to be given away, the highest being \$300, the lowest \$5.00.

CLASS FIVE includes all towns from 5,000 to 10,000 inhabitants. In this class there are 307 prizes to be given away, the highest being \$200, the lowest \$5.00.

CLASS SIX includes all towns from 1,000 to 5,000 inhabitants. In this class there are 367 prizes to be given away, the highest being \$150, the lowest \$5.00.

CLASS SEVEN includes towns of 1,000 inhabitants and under. In this class there are 601 prizes to be given away, the highest being \$100, the lowest \$5.00.

AN ILLUSTRATION A woman taking subscriptions in a city of 25,000 population would be in **Class 4**. She would compete with others sending subscriptions from towns of 10,000 population up to 30,000. She would have an opportunity of winning one of 257 prizes, which might be as high as \$300 and could not be less than \$5.00. She would win a larger prize if she sent in twenty subscriptions than would a woman who forwarded twenty from a town of 30,000, because her proportion of subscriptions to population would be larger. **This being the case, some very small lists will win some very large prizes.** In one of our recent prize offers, a woman in Washington, D. C., won a prize of \$25.00 for securing only fourteen subscriptions.

NO CONDITIONS The same woman can win several prizes in every class by taking subscriptions in different towns. The contest begins with this announcement and will terminate **February 15th, 1901**. Providing the first order contains two or more subscriptions, they will be accepted at **90 cents** each. Subscriptions can be sent afterward at the 60-cent rate until February 15th, 1901. The regular price of The Delineator is \$1.00 a year. Subscriptions must begin with November or December of 1900, or January, February or March of 1901.

PROFITS FOR ALL Every woman who fails to win one of the above prizes, but who sends subscriptions at the proportion of one to every two hundred inhabitants of a town, will be paid a special prize of ten cents on each subscription secured, in addition to the ten cents allowed above.

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All women, in sending their first order of two or more subscriptions, must mention that they are to apply upon the above offer; complete information regarding prizes, with order blanks, will be sent. To those who are not thoroughly acquainted with the merits of The Delineator, full information will be sent upon request. Address,

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Eli McClish, and the secretary, Mrs. E. J. Dawson.

The Pacific Grove Assembly has a unique position on account of its environment of sea, forest and mountain, with a peculiar climate favoring a wonderful variety of plant and animal life, of great interest to the scientific world. These conditions have led to a new feature of work, by which the assembly has come into close relation with the city, or rather the village, through an organization called the Pacific Grove Museum Association. This organization has undertaken to build up the museum begun some years ago by the assembly, and in connection with it to start a reference and scientific library. Another object of the association has been to preserve the native flora in a small botanical garden, and to maintain a winter course of lectures. The organization of this movement is due to Dr. Thomas Filben, superintendent of instruction (C. L. S. C.); Mr. B. A. Eardly, representative of the Pacific Grove Improvement Company; Mr. Thomas Cowan, president of the Pacific Grove Museum Association, whose financial aid has promoted the work, and Miss M. E. B. Norton, who originated the plan. Out of this association has grown an Annual Natural History and Art Exposition, and the "Young Folks Club," with a recognized place on the assembly platform on Young Folks' Day.

PALMER LAKE, COLORADO.

The program of this assembly was distinctly Chautauquan in that many of its lectures supplemented the reading course of the winter. There was an increased attendance of at least sixty per cent over any former year.

In the work of the schools, nature study, including bird and animal life, was especially popular. A training school for Sunday-school teachers was a prominent feature of the program. A committee from the State Sunday-school Association and from the various county associations coöperated with the Chautauqua management in preparing the program and conducting this school. The course in literature and oratory under Professor J. W. Wetzel was also most successful, and the C. L. S. C., as usual, occupied an important place.

There has developed a spirit of enthusiasm and loyalty to the resort that promises large things in the future. Year after year programs of a high order have been presented; a high moral tone has been created, and the Christian Sabbath strictly observed. The Y. W. C. A. of the state have a permanent

summer Rest Home here, where self-supporting women can procure board and room at a nominal rate. This year many families are buying lots and building cottages.

PIASA, JERSEY COUNTY, ILLINOIS.

The seventeenth annual session of the Piasa Chautauqua Assembly was held from July 19 to August 16, 1900.

An excellent program was arranged by Rev. S. B. Warner, D. D., superintendent of instruction. The normal work was in the charge of Rev. A. P. George, D. D., and the kindergarten under the management of Miss Addie G. Tandy. A successful minister's institute was one of the new features of this season's assembly. The chorus was under the direction of Professor M. Edwin Johnson, and a W. C. T. U. institute was conducted by Mrs. Mary E. Kuhl. The C. L. S. C. work, Woman's Council and Girl's Outlook Club, were in charge of Mrs. A. E. Shipley, of Iowa, who proved an intelligent and efficient leader, awakening new interest along these educational lines. The meetings of the C. L. S. C. were held in the newly erected and commodious Hall of Philosophy. A number of new members were added to the C. L. S. C., and a circle was formed in Belleville, Illinois, with the promise of quickened interest and effort in other surrounding towns. August 9 was observed as Recognition Day, the address being delivered by Rev. George Hindley, D. D. Diplomas were awarded to six graduates.

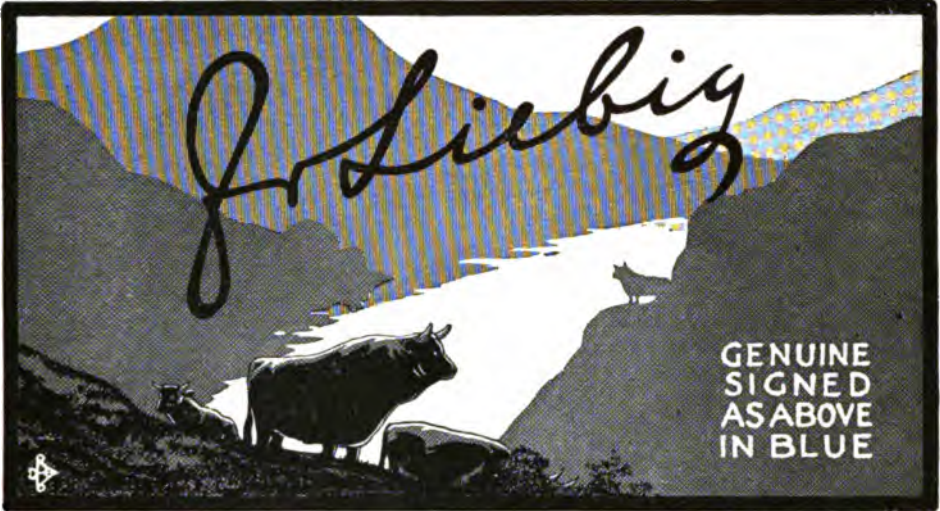
A number of improvements have been made during the year, including the building of a Hall of Philosophy, the remodeling and enlargement of the hotel, and the erection of a number of attractive cottages.

The officers are as follows: President, A. W. Cross; first vice-president, J. B. Ulrich; secretary, P. M. Hamilton; treasurer, Geo. H. Dougherty; superintendent of instruction, S. B. Warner, D. D.

PLAINVILLE, CONNECTICUT.

Plainville, Connecticut, is an assembly under the direction of the camp-meeting association in the New Haven District of the New York East Conference Methodist Episcopal Church. The chairman of the program committee for this year was Rev. W. D. Howell, Hartford, Connecticut. C. L. S. C. work was introduced for the first time, and the Round Tables were enthusiastically sustained. Over fifty members were enrolled for the new Class of 1904, and these

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represent some twenty towns where it is probable circles will be formed. At Seymour and Waterbury organizations have already reported, each with a large membership. Arrangements have been made to hold a Recognition Day next year, so that graduates in the state may have an assembly near at hand where they can be recognized. An Assembly C. L. S. C. Association was formed with the following officers: President, Rev. Geo. M. Brown, Derby, Connecticut; vice-president, Rev. Edgar C. Tullar, Seymour, Connecticut; secretary, Rev. F. H. L. Hammond, Wallingford, Connecticut; corresponding secretary, Miss Annie R. McDonnell, Hartford, Connecticut; treasurer, Eugene C. Hill, New Haven, Connecticut.

PONTIAC, ILLINOIS.

The third annual session of this assembly, held July 26 to August 8, was a grand success in every particular. Large crowds were in attendance, the daily average being over forty-two hundred, and one day reaching as high as eleven thousand. C. L. S. C. work was conducted with conspicuous success under the leadership of Mrs. A. E. Shipley, of Des Moines, Iowa. Daily Round Tables were held for a week and much interest was awakened. Dr. E. L. Eaton delivered the address on Recognition Day. It is proposed to bring this part of the work into greater prominence another year and make it a strong feature of the educational program of the assembly. A. C. Folsom, who has been superintendent of the assembly from its inception, was continued in that capacity.

REMINGTON, INDIANA.

Since the first assembly in 1895, Fountain Park has grown steadily in excellence of program, in attendance, and in the appreciation of its patrons. The program of the sixth assembly, held July 28 to August 11, excelled all previous ones in the number of attractions and in the uniformly high character of each. Bible study is an essential part of the program, and was conducted this season by B. B. Tyler, of Chicago, and C. B. Newman, of Detroit. A new and important feature was introduced in the series of sermons and addresses on the home, followed by a conference for mothers. The attendance was larger than in any preceding season. Lecturers of national reputation occupied the platform each day, while concerts, recitals, and moving pictures gave variety and zest to the program. The development of summer-school courses at Fountain Park is only

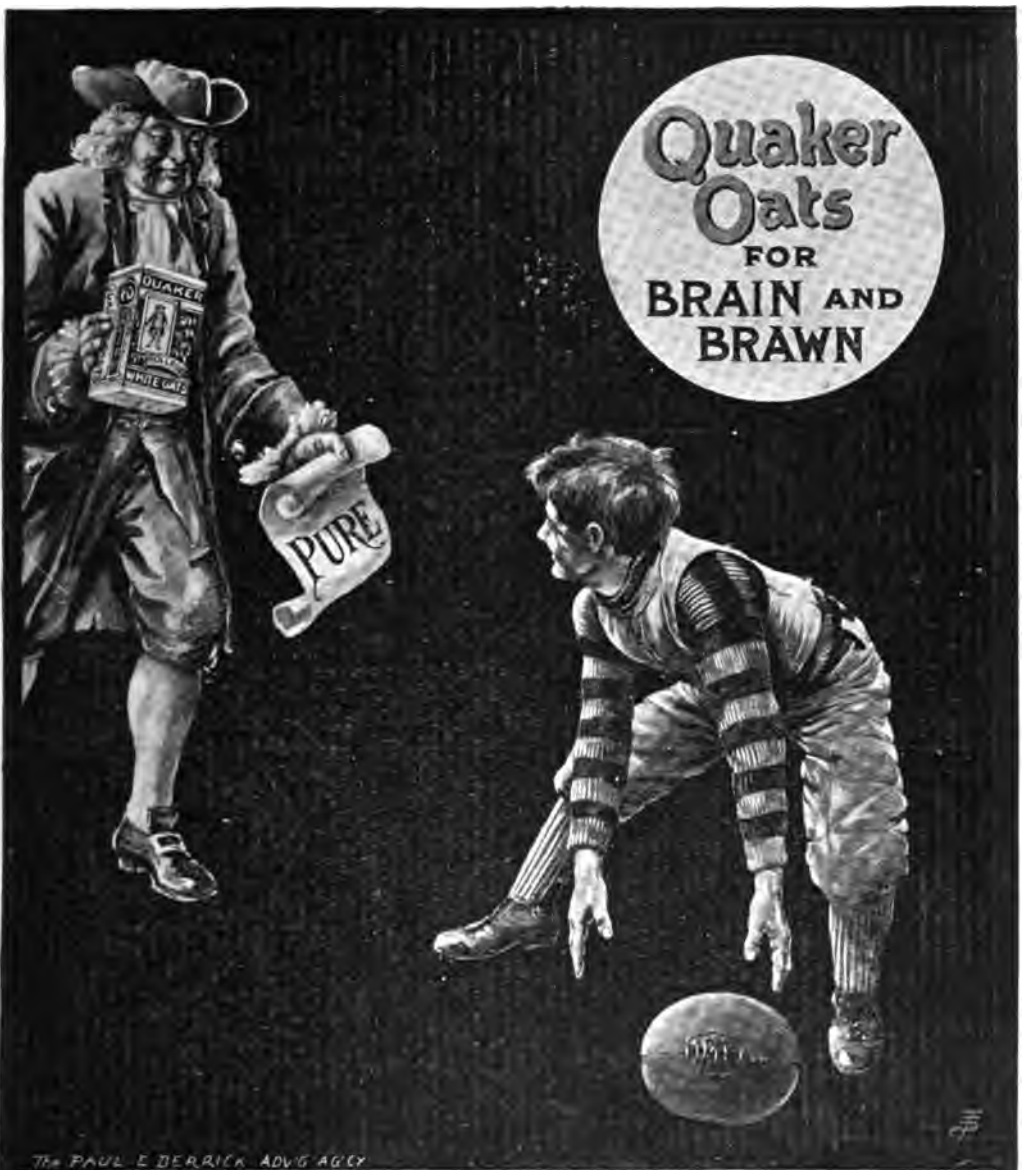
a question of time. A reunion of C. L. S. C. graduates and workers was held August 11, and steps were taken to enlarge the work and give it more prominence on future programs. Fountain Park is the only assembly in northwestern Indiana in a stretch of territory containing no large cities. Its people are beginning to realize that the assembly brings into their midst advantages which can be secured in no other way.

ROCK RIVER—DIXON, ILLINOIS.

The thirteenth annual session of this assembly was successful from every point of view. Especial attention was given to the work of the schools, and a school of music, extending over an entire month, was added to the equipment of the assembly. The general attendance at the public lectures was quite equal to that of former years, and in some cases quite surpassed previous records. Special days brought into prominence various questions of present-day interest, as the race question discussed by Hon. J. P. Dolliver and Hon. Champ Clark. Many new lecturers were heard, and the interests of the assembly widened in many ways. The exercises of Recognition Day were, as always, of great interest. Nine C. L. S. C. graduates received their diplomas, and the enrolment for the new class promises to be large. The general outlook is a subject for congratulation. The erection of new cottages indicate growing appreciation of the value of the assembly. A large pavilion was added to the hotel. At the annual meeting the retiring directors were unanimously reelected.

RUSTON, LOUISIANA.

The ninth annual session of the Louisiana Chautauqua began July 1, and continued four weeks. The session was by far the best in the history of the association, both as to attendance and work. The summer school was under the auspices of the state institute conductor, J. B. Aswell, and the faculty was composed of twenty-one specialists from Louisiana and other states. The platform talent was varied and well selected. Special meetings and Round Table conferences were numerous and interesting. The C. L. S. C. work was represented by Miss Cornelia A. Teal, of Brooklyn, New York. Chautauqua Day was duly observed and an able address made by Professor John R. Ficklen, of Tulane University, New Orleans. Miss Teal's work in behalf of the C. L. S. C. greatly stimulated the interest in that direction, and she enrolled a good list



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of members in this important course for home study. Eloquent sermons - were preached each Sunday by noted divines. The beautiful Chautauqua Vesper Service at six o'clock and prayer service at eight o'clock made a fitting close to the religious exercises.

The financial condition of the association is excellent. Railroad connections are now good, and will be greatly improved by the opening of next season. The work and attendance this year have given the management every reason to be hopeful of greater growth and more extended usefulness. Mrs. M. H. Williams was reelected president; H. E. Chambers, New Orleans, first vice-president; Miss Agnes Morris, state normal school, second vice-president. Professor C. E. Byrd was retained as general manager; W. K. Duncan, of Ruston, continues as secretary, assisted by W. H. Hodges, of the state industrial school.

SELLERSVILLE, PENNSYLVANIA.

The assembly at Sellersville held the most successful session in its history. It is not a large assembly, but it has worked on a sound educational basis from the first and its growth has been steady and permanent. Fifteen new members were enrolled in the class of 1904 and as these represent a number of towns, many new circles are likely to result. The assembly has the enthusiastic support of the circles of the county, and the secretary, Mr. E. E. Althouse, will be glad to correspond with any interested in the work.

SILVER LAKE, NEW YORK.

The Silver Lake Assembly held its usual session in August. The very popular school of conference studies was continued as usual, and was largely attended. Schools in oratory, physical culture, etc., were also conducted. Some of the subjects presented from the lecture platform were "The North American Indian," by Mr. J. M. Sanborn; "Mormonism," by Rev. T. C. Iliff; and "Mobs and Crowds," by Dr. George E. Vincent. The Temperance Congress was held as usual, and also the customary Methodist Rally Day. C. L. S. C. Round Tables were conducted, and literature distributed with a view to the enrolment of new members. The assembly has some problems to face, but it has had a long and useful career, and its many friends anticipate greater opportunities for it in the future.

TEXAS-COLORADO — BOULDER, COLORADO.

The Texas-Colorado Chautauqua stands for a very interesting experiment, by which the

people of the south and north have combined for intellectual and ethical stimulus. The third annual session of this assembly proved, as in the case of previous sessions, an unqualified success. The general program included lectures of the highest rank. The music was beyond criticism, and the various summer schools were conducted with ability and thoroughness. Those who visited the grounds represented many states and sections of the country, but they were chiefly from Texas and the southwest. On special days the assembly was reinforced by crowds of visitors from various parts of Colorado, and on "Colorado Day" the Women's Club, of Denver, took entire charge of the day's proceedings. The C. L. S. C. Round Tables, under the leadership of Mrs. Pennybacker, attracted much attention. Many subjects of importance were discussed, among them "The Relation of the C. L. S. C. to Home Life," "Good Books for Children," etc. Recognition Day was characterized by the usual services, preceded by the customary Chautauqua procession. A boys' club was organized with a membership of thirty. Arrangements were also considered for making permanent the girls' club, by erecting a club house where girls could enjoy a vacation at very slight expense. Other important features of the assembly were the athletic exhibition, coming on one of the closing days, and also a presentation of Shakespeare's "Twelfth Night."

WATHENA, KANSAS.

The Assembly of Wathena, just closing its second yearly session, promises to be a prominent and important center in north-eastern Kansas. The debate on "Expansion," which was a striking feature of the program, attracted much attention, and in other respects the daily exercises have given much satisfaction. The work of the C. L. S. C. was brought into great prominence through the effective work of Mrs. L. S. Corey, and a large number joined the Class of 1904. The management succeeded admirably in providing for the comfort and well-being of those in attendance, and the outlook for the future of this Chautauqua is propitious.

WATERLOO, IOWA.

This assembly, which is now nearly ten years old, entered at the outset on a prosperous career. The assembly is held in Cedar River Park, adjoining the city of Waterloo, and not far distant from the neighboring city



"Why such bright smiles, my
pretty maid,
And brighter tins?" he gently said.
"The truth you surely, sir, may
know,
I simply use **SAPOLIO!**"

CLEANS · SCOURS · POLISHES

of Cedar Falls. The auditorium is now surrounded by one hundred and fifty cottages, and a permanent population of some three hundred people make their summer homes at Chautauqua Park. The program for the present season is considered the best in the history of the assembly. Men of standing and ability have discussed the vital questions of the hour. The musical attractions have included many persons of marked talent, and during the morning hours thorough work was done in the various classes under the direction of the assembly. The present session has had the misfortune to contend against repeated and drenching rains, but in spite of this disadvantage the interest was thoroughly sustained. Recognition Day saw seventeen graduates pass the arches, and the large number of members enrolled in the town of Waterloo gives to the assembly such a body of active Chautauquans as to make the social features of its gatherings thoroughly in accord with the spirit of Chautauqua. Many new members are expected for the coming course.

WILLAMETTE VALLEY, OREGON.

The Willamette Valley Chautauqua Association has just closed the seventh annual assembly, which was one of the best ever held. Educational work was emphasized. Specialists were secured for the departments of music, art, elocution, botany, American history, European history, psychology, literature, Anglo-Saxon, Bible study, junior Bible, physical culture, Sunday-school methods and W. C. T. U. work. Each class was well attended, some having one hundred and forty members. The forenoons were devoted to classes, while the afternoons and evenings were filled with lectures and entertainments, concerts, Round Tables, and field sports. The C. L. S. C. work received proper attention at the Round Table by a competent leader of a local circle. Eight graduates marched through the Golden Gate and received their diplomas. Gladstone Park, the home of the assembly, presents a picturesque and beautiful scene. The great auditorium, with a seating capacity of three thousand people, is surrounded by the headquarters of the different churches, colleges, secret orders and other institutions, all appropriately decorated with flags, bunting, and Japanese lanterns. Farther back in the grove are the two hundred and eighty tents of the campers. At the annual business meeting the officers and directors were reelected for the ensuing year.

WINFIELD, KANSAS.

The fourteenth annual session of the Winfield Chautauqua Assembly, opening on June 12, and closing July 2, is conceded to have been one of the most enjoyable as well as successful in the history of the association.

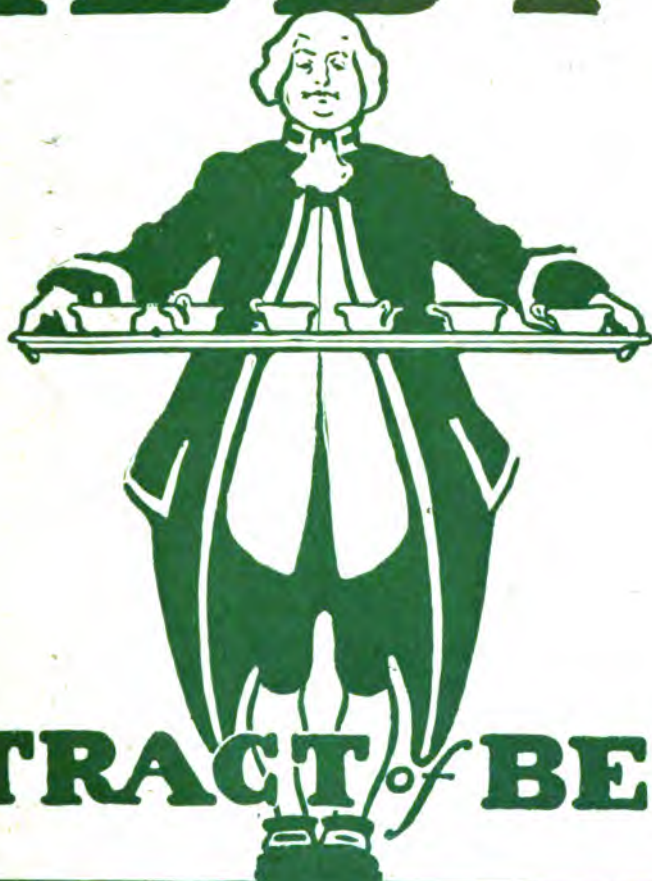
The department of sacred literature was conducted by Dr. H. L. Willett, of Chicago; English by Professor W. D. MacClintock, of Chicago University; W. C. T. U. school of methods by Mrs. E. P. Hutchinson, state president; C. L. S. C., Mrs. Alma F. Piatt, of Kansas; physical culture by Miss M. Ona Tourtelotte, of Nebraska; and domestic science by Miss Sarah W. Landes, of Ohio.

Among the new features of the session were the Educational Day, directed by Hon. Frank Nelson, and the political debate by Messrs. Landis and Clark. Both were successful and will warrant repetition. Caman's Military Band gave a concert every evening.

The C. L. S. C., under the direction of Mrs. Piatt, was, as usual, successful. The Round Tables at the four o'clock hour were well attended, and were intensely interesting. The large pavilion, seating three hundred, would hardly accommodate the meetings, and from the early morning until the close of the afternoon meeting the visitors loitered about the headquarters, gathering information regarding Chautauqua work. Recognition Day was a red-letter day this season. Thirteen members of the Class of 1900 were present to receive diplomas, and about three hundred Chautauquans were present to take part in the Recognition service. At the close of the service followed the banquet, which has become a regular feature of Recognition Day at Winfield. Professor MacClintock, of Chicago University, presided, and the occasion was one long to be remembered. About ninety members were enrolled for the new year, and we hope to make the number reach the one hundred mark by October.

Other assemblies which have held successful sessions, but from which full reports have not been received, are Spirit Lake, Iowa; Urbana, Illinois; Grimsby Park, Ontario; Danville, Illinois; Ocean Park, Maine; Devil's Lake, North Dakota; Tully Lake, New York; Round Lake, New York; Lakeside, Ohio; Hedding, New Hampshire; Crystal Springs, Mississippi; Clarinda, Iowa; Eaglesmere, Pennsylvania; Talladega, Alabama; Delavan, Wisconsin. A special article upon the Winona, Indiana, Assembly was published in the September number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

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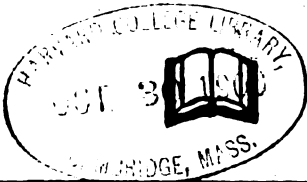
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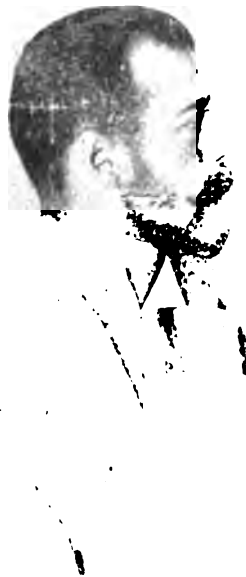
The multitude of imitation baking powder in the market, sold at a lower price, are made with alum. This corrosive poison is not cream of tartar, because it costs but one-half as much. Alum in food is destructive and should be avoided at any price.

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A Monthly Magazine for Self-Education.

FRANK CHAPIN BRAY, Editor.

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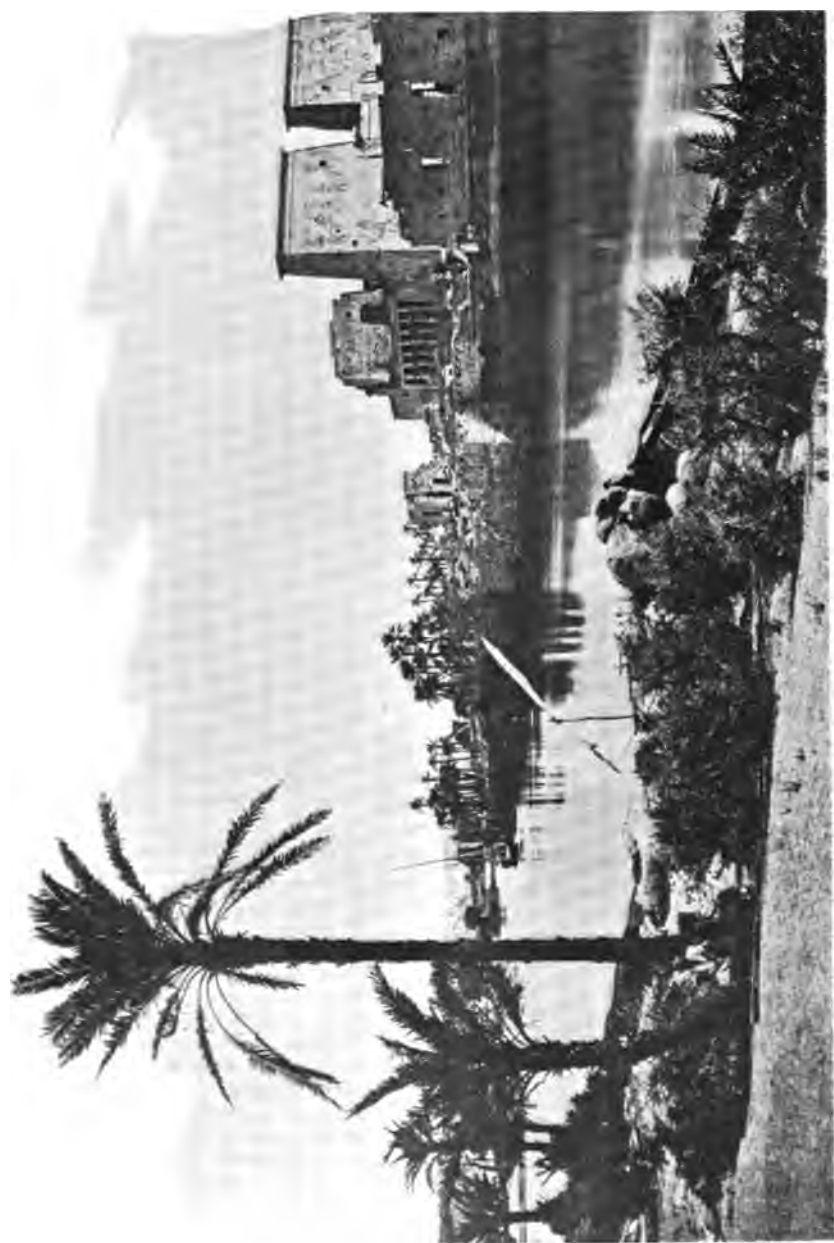
BUREAU OF PUBLICATION: WILLIAM S. BAILEY, Director.

CLEVELAND, OHIO.

Entered according to Act of Congress, November, 1900, by THE CHAUTAUQUA ASSEMBLY, in the office of the Librarian of Congress, Washington, D. C.

Yearly Subscription, \$2.00. Single Copies, 20c.

Entered at Cleveland Post-Office as Second-class Mail Matter.



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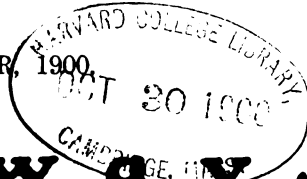
VOL. XXXII.

NOVEMBER, 1900

No. 2.



Highway & Byway



THE situation in China has improved considerably, though it is by no means safe to predict an early or satisfactory settlement. There are trained observers—M. le Blowitz, the eminent Paris correspondent of the *London Times* being one of them—who apprehend serious disturbances in Europe as the result of the Far Eastern complication. The concert of the powers, outwardly intact, has repeatedly been on the verge of disruption. The great question which remains unanswered is this: Are all the powers really desirous of restoring order in China under the native government, and of respecting the territorial integrity of the empire? There is no doubt concerning the position of the United States, Great Britain and France. None of these powers has ulterior designs in China. They seek guaranties for the future and, perhaps, an indemnity for the injuries and losses sustained in consequence of the anti-foreign upheaval, and especially for the attacks on the legations. But Russia and Germany are suspected of territorial ambition. The latter power, indeed, has been accused of seeking a pretext for declaring war upon China.

Early in September, when peace negotiations seemed to be in sight, the German government suddenly arrested diplomatic efforts by issuing a note in which it declared that the "indispensable preliminary" to the opening of negotiations with the imperial authorities of China was the surrender to the foreign commanders stationed at Peking, for trial and punishment, of the chief and original instigators of the outrages. This was an extraordinary demand, an impossible condition. No nation can be expected to deliver up, on *ex parte* testimony, high officials for trial by a military court composed of invaders. The German proposal created general consternation. If persisted

in, it would have led to another acute crisis. The United States promptly rejected it, and an order for the withdrawal of our troops not only from Peking, but from Chinese soil was issued. Our government stated that it was prepared to insist upon the punishment, by China, of the instigators of the troubles, but even this was to be made a condition of restoration of full diplomatic relations, not a "preliminary" to negotiations.

Matters were exceedingly uncertain; rather bewildering for a while. But a way out of the dilemma was unexpectedly opened by the Emperor of China himself. He issued an edict degrading Prince Tuan, the chief of the anti-foreign crusaders, and ordering his trial and "severe punishment." Other dignitaries and officials were named in the same edict for similar treatment. Though the empress-regent is believed to be as culpable as Tuan and his lieutenants, the powers are willing to overlook her participation in the crimes, though they may oppose her resumption of imperial authority and place the young emperor, Kwang Hsu, upon the throne of China. At all events, Germany has modified her demand in view of the emperor's edict and has proposed to the powers to refer to their respective diplomatic representatives the following questions:

1. Whether the list contained in the edict of persons to be punished is sufficient and correct.
2. Whether the punishments proposed meet the case.
3. In what way the powers can control the carrying out of the penalties imposed.

The United States and Great Britain have indorsed this proposal, and the other governments are expected to acquiesce in it. Till the answers are received from Peking there will be a pause in the Chinese situation. If the ministers make favorable reports, definite steps toward a settlement will speedily

follow. If they doubt the good faith or sufficiency of the emperor's action, difficulties and further delays may ensue.



FIELD-MARSHAL VON
WALDERSEE,
Commander-in-chief of
Allied Forces in
China.

In this year of "Conger despatches," trans-pacific cable projects, and long distance diplomacy, an incident connected with the early days of the electric telegraph may have repetition. M. Louis Adolphe Thiers, afterwards president of the French republic, was even then a veteran in the public service of his nation, and had little to learn of the ways of the world. To him came a young *attaché*, full of enthusiasm over the new era which telegraphy should usher

in. There were to be no more international misunderstandings. The long delays of the post were annihilated, and the truth of any diplomatic situation could be known almost instantaneously in all capitals of Europe! To his glowing vision the chief obstacle to millennial peace had been swept away by this wonderful invention. Thiers heard him to the end of his rhapsody, but chilled him with a word. "Millennium, nonsense! The devil will control the telegraph within a decade!" As we recall the history of a half century of telegraphy, and consider how the Morse alphabet has been used to spell out lies, to throw the bourses into a panic, to mislead and confuse public opinion and to influence governmental policies for evil, the significance of the astute minister's saying is readily apparent. Indeed, the part played by the telegraph in the lightning diplomatic strategy which precipitated the Franco-Prussian war of 1870 is ample warrant for the ill-boding remark.



Every missionary society in North America save two, having work in China, was represented in a conference, informal and informing, held in New York at the invitation of the Presbyterian Board of Foreign Missions at the end of September. While the action

of the conference delegates was not binding upon their society executives, these delegates practically settled the attitude of American societies toward the Chinese problems growing out of the late difficulties. They agreed: (1) That there is nothing in the China situation to create alarm, discouragement, and a condition making it wise to withdraw work and workers; (2) that missionaries who are temporarily away from their stations ought to remain as near to them as possible, in order that they may return as early as conditions permit, and be of service, it may be, to native Christians while waiting in nearby countries; (3) that when governments, United States and Great Britain, ask for statements of losses, only actual losses for property destroyed shall be put down, together with something to cover the cost of hasty removals, but that there should be no excessive demands; (4) that Christians at home pray and pay for China as they have never done before, and that a week for the same be observed, which will have passed when this is printed; and (5) that upon the renewal of work a good opportunity opens for the putting into effect of comity plans long ago matured. In the matter of indemnity there was a strong feeling that nothing at all be asked. Two considerations prevented this course. One was that leniency under such circumstances is looked upon by the oriental as weakness, and the cause is injured rather than helped. The other is that missionary society executives, who are merely trustees, are not sure that they have a right to surrender title in this way to money which does not belong to them.



That the American colleges have quickened their steps so as to keep pace with popular movements is indicated by abundant and unmistakable signs. The University of the City of New York has instituted a School of Commerce in which instruction is given, not only in the technical subjects formerly relegated, with a certain scorn, be it said, to the "business colleges," but in the broader principles which govern foreign and domestic trade. The Schools of Forestry, in which Yale has so promptly followed the enlightened lead of Cornell University, supply another case in point. The university authorities have not been so buried in their Greek and Latin as to overlook their duty and opportunity to assist their countrymen in preserving and economizing one of our prime natural resources, hitherto so wastefully

handled. The immense expansion of the foreign commerce of the United States, and our emergence as a political factor in the affairs of Asia and the Indies have been the signal for a new and still more radical departure from the old grooves of university curricula. The spectacle of Mother Harvard brooding her Cuban chickens is familiar to the whole country. Union and other colleges have taken measures to facilitate the collegiate education of West Indian youth in leading American institutions, while Yale and Chicago have embarked upon a still more novel project, undertaking to train our own young men to bear the "white man's burden" in the development of trade and government in our foreign possessions and those eastern countries toward or beyond which our western boundaries have lately been advanced. President Hadley, outlining his plans for the Yale School of Colonial Administration, says that hitherto the attention of historians, economists, and sociologists has been fixed upon a group of European nations. Courses are now offered in modern oriental history, the history of India and its institutions, the history of colonial administration, and the sociological problems involved in our dealings with savage or semi-civilized races. Yale's president says:

"It is not contemplated that such a school would be, primarily, at any rate, a technical place of training for consuls. The difficulty at the present moment seems to be not so much in the supply of training for these places as in the demand for trained men. The immediate field of work for such a school would be the creation of an intelligent public sentiment concerning the politics of the world as a whole, and the possible methods of dealing

with our new possessions and new responsibilities, which should form the basis of a national policy where trained men would have a chance to show their abilities."

Whatever our individual opinion as to the right or wrong of our methods of dealing with the situation which confronts us in the East and West Indies, no thoughtful American can deny that our relations with foreign peoples are being knit more closely by all the influences of the time, and we must welcome every wise effort of our educators which has for its aim the

preparation of young men to grapple intelligently and successfully with the responsibilities which inevitably must be met in the near future, whether we are prepared or not.



The delegates to the constitutional convention of Cuba have been elected, and the results show that the Nationals have twenty-two of the thirty delegates, there being six Republicans and two Union Democrats. Owing to the fact that some irregularity was discovered in the voting in Havana province, the final result may be slightly different. The control of the convention by the Nationals will bring Maximo Gomez to the front as the principal figure, and the results of the convention will depend largely upon the attitude assumed by him toward the various questions to be considered by the body. Gomez appears to be thoroughly sincere in his desire for the independence of Cuba, and is represented as holding the welfare of the Cuban people above every other consideration. If the attitude of Gomez can be taken as an index of the sentiments of the Nationals, there is apparently not the slightest chance for the adoption of any proposition looking toward the establishment of a protectorate by the United States. He is said to be radically opposed to such a measure. Señor Zayas, who is one of the delegates to the convention, declares that the body will not allow itself to be influenced in the least by any agent of the United States, that it will adopt an independent policy throughout and will refuse to make any decision as to the relations which shall hereafter exist between Cuba and the United States; in his judgment that matter should be referred to a joint commission.



Russians are anxious to learn what Americans do through the Young Men's Christian Association for the religious and philanthropic advantage of railway employees. Americans do a good deal. Buildings of a



GENERAL MARTINEZ CAMPOS,
Late Governor General of
Cuba.



MAXIMO GOMEZ,
Leader in the Cuban Constitutional Convention.

and we must welcome every wise effort of our educators which has for its aim the

total value of twelve hundred thousand dollars are used, and almost every considerable railway center either has a model building, or is erecting one. At the middle of last month there was held in Philadelphia a



KOGORO TAKAHIRA.
New Japanese Minister to
the United States.

conference of Association railway workers, and to the conference came MM. Reitlinger and Sedlovski, both of them connected with the railway system of Russia, officers in uplift organizations among the employees, and both sent here at the personal instigation of the emperor himself. Two years ago, at the request of Prince Hilkoﬀ, director of Russian railways, Clarence J. Hicks,

one of the international committee, visited Russia, and made a report and suggestions upon the relief system among railway employees there, which suggestions went personally to the tsar. There is much done for the Russian employee, but it is all done by the state and the corporations, the employee not being consulted, nor permitted to give. The Russian Church in its official capacity takes part, but there is no spontaneous interest put forth by the men in religious matters, largely because such interest is not encouraged. After the Philadelphia meeting the emperor's representatives were taken to many cities and shown typical association buildings.

The catalogue of the Greek war-ships is shorter now than it was when the poet of the Iliad anchored it in his hexameters, to the great discomfiture of the modern school-boy. But it is a trim little navy that flies the blue and white flag of the kingdom of the Hellenes, if it is fair to judge the rest by the one which has been visiting our eastern coast this autumn. Her coming is worthy of especial note, for she is the first Greek man-o'-war that ever crossed the loud-sounding Atlantic. Not even Odysseus, that wide-wandering Ithacan, logged as many knots as Commander Paul Coundouriotis of His Hellenic Majesty's corvette *Nauarchos Miaoulis*. (*Nauarchos* is now, as of old, "shipmaster")

or "admiral," and Admiral Miaoulis was the naval hero of the Greek war of independence, the Dewey of his day.) The corvette was built in the French yard twenty-three years ago, and is not remarkable from a naval point of view, being but one hundred and seventy-five feet long, and carrying only seven guns. Her speed is rated at fifteen knots. She looked very inoffensive as she lay in the North river last month under the guns of the towering *New York*, and the mighty floating fortress *Kearsarge*. But to the hundreds of Greco-Americans who cheered her arrival and departure and crowded her decks while she was here, she was the loveliest of visions and fit to engage the *Oregon* single-handed. The New York colony of Greeks, now numbering several thousand (mostly venders of flowers and chestnuts), presented the vessel with a massive silver bowl, and the fair daughters of Hellas, residing in New York, added to the gift a beautiful silken ensign of blue and white.

The strike of the miners in the anthracite coal region of Pennsylvania, at this writing apparently nearing an end, is in some respects the most remarkable industrial struggle of the last decade. The number of men involved is estimated at one hundred and thirty-five thousand, the total number of miners, laborers, helpers, etc., in the fields being one hundred and forty-five thousand. The strike was ordered by the United Mine Workers of America, a national organization which has great strength in the bituminous regions and has, after severe struggles, obtained complete recognition from the operators in those districts. In the anthracite fields the organization had not been successful in enlisting the adhesion and support of the majority of the miners, owing to the large admixture of inferior Huns, Poles and other foreigners. The officials of the union have claimed a membership of only about thirty-five thousand in the whole region, while the operators have scouted this claim and asserted that not over ten per cent of their employees were organized. There is little doubt that the operators regarded a general strike as improbable. The union they denounced as an alien in the anthracite region, and they declined to recognize either the national or the local officials, who repeatedly declared their readiness to submit all their grievances to arbitration.

The demands of the miners were as follows: An advance of wages averaging fifteen

per cent; abolition of company or "pluck me" stores; semi-monthly cash payments; abolition of company medical relief paid for by the miners; reduction of the price of powder to the market rate; a more equitable basis for weighing coal. The requests for a joint conference to consider the grievances having been declined, the strike order was issued. About eighty thousand men immediately laid down their tools and walked out. Every subsequent day brought accessions to the strikers, and at this writing nearly all the men are idle.

Public sympathy, in the main, has been on the side of the strikers, largely because they have maintained order and discouraged all aggression, and also because they have offered to submit their case to impartial arbitration. The reality of the grievances complained of is not denied by any one. There has been some controversy regarding the average annual wages earned by the striking miners. President John Mitchell of the United Mine Workers estimated the amount at two hundred and fifty dollars, while the operators have put it at six hundred dollars and even eight hundred dollars. Outside investigators have reported that four hundred dollars would probably be a correct estimate.

At the end of two weeks, the miners remaining firm and united, the operators began to offer an advance in wages of ten per cent. The union they would not recog-

nize, but this was at no time a condition precedent to a settlement. Mr. Mitchell and his fellow officials of the union waited till all the operators, including the big coal railroad companies, agreed to concede a ten per cent increase in wages, and then issued a call for a convention of representatives of all the miners to consider the offer and decide upon its acceptance or rejection.

Eventually the anthracite operators will have, out of self-interest alone, to do what the bituminous operators did in 1897—recognize the national union, arrange wage schedules with it every year and avoid strikes by conciliation and arbitration. It is too late in the day to deny to men the right to organize and act through representatives.



JOHN MITCHELL,
President United Mine
Workers of America.



REAL IMPERIALISM.
—Minneapolis Journal.

Must society submit to industrial war and endure the hardships and losses entailed by it without a murmur? In theory, the existing industrial order is based on free contract, and capital and labor, with equal vehemence, insist upon non-interference with their affairs. The employer wants to "manage his own business in his own way," and if he consents to treat with labor organizations, he does so as a matter of expediency, to avoid trouble and interruption of production.

The workmen insist upon their legal and moral right to combine, strike, boycott their enemies and use whatever methods (short of criminal aggression) they may find necessary in their efforts to improve their condition. In the main, we know, society has respected these claims. Legislatures have done little to protect the public from industrial disturbances, for the reason that nothing could be done without restricting the freedom of capital and labor, and such restrictions would be contrary to American principles.

It is apparent, however, that in many thoughtful quarters this view of the subject is beginning to arouse doubt and dissent. Is it true that society is not an interested party in industrial controversies? When a lock-out or strike results in an advance

of prices and in discomfort to the great consuming classes, are they without a remedy, without the right to call for consideration of *their* side of the question? Not a few conservative newspapers have inti-



EX-PRESIDENT HARRISON,
Member of the International
Board of Arbitration.

imated that the United States might even long be compelled to follow the example of New Zealand, and prescribe compulsory arbitration of all industrial disputes. This, of course, would be an extreme remedy, and it would involve public regulation of wages, hours, etc. Many states have established boards of arbitration and conciliation, but recourse to these being

voluntary, little good has been accomplished, as the official arbitrators themselves have testified before the congressional industrial commission. Commissioner McMackin of New York showed that not ten per cent of the strikes in that state had been settled by the official arbitrators. If employers and employed could be induced to hold annual conferences and fix the wage scale and adjust other differences (as is done in the steel trade, the machine-manufacturing industry, the bituminous coal trade, etc.), there would be no need for state arbitration, compulsory or other. But some employers still decline to recognize unions or to treat with representatives of their men, and the arrogant attitude of the short-sighted is still a formidable obstacle to industrial concord and peace.

From Chicago, however, comes a practical suggestion which may commend itself to the conservative public. The street railway commission appointed by the city council to prepare ordinances extending existing franchises on fair terms is inclined to favor the insertion in each such ordinance of a provision requiring the grantee to arbitrate its difficulties, whenever they may happen to arise, with its employees.

This is based on the principle that the municipality, in bestowing valuable grants, is entitled to prevent the hardships resulting from strikes in the street transportation industry. A stipulation of this character would bind the companies alone, of course, and the employees not at all, and because of this some Chicago editors condemn the proposal as one-sided and mischievous. The men, it is contended, would have the companies in their power and put forward all sorts of demands in order to extort concessions. The objection is plausible but unsound. Unreasonable demands would be rejected by the arbitrators, and to the submission of reasonable ones no fair-minded man can take exception. The employees would be jealous of their reputation and would not risk the forfeiture of confidence by trivial and groundless quarrels.

Public utilities operated under franchises by private enterprise are in a different category from competitive industries, and to impose arbitration upon grantees of privileges as one of the conditions of the franchise is merely to exercise the right of an owner who is under no obligation to surrender his control and who is at liberty to annex to his grant any conditions he may see fit. This is fundamentally different from a general compulsory arbitration law for all corporations and employers. Its adoption would serve as a precedent and an example.



As a preventive or solvent of monopolistic combinations in restraint of trade the national anti-trust law has not been of much potency. Some, indeed, have denounced it as a dead letter. In the first place, it covers only combinations carrying on interstate commerce, and in the second place the



THE TRUSTS—"I can't have any friends until after the election."

—Chicago Record.

federal courts have held that a manufacturing combination which merely ships its products into other states is not engaged in "interstate commerce," within the meaning of this term as used in the constitution. This construction limited the anti-trust law only to such monopolies as controlled the *instrumentalities* of interstate commerce.

But a late decision by Judge Thompson, of the federal district court at Cincinnati, if sustained, will greatly strengthen the national trust law and extend its scope and operation. The question before him was the legality of an agreement among a large number of West Virginia coal companies to control the output of coke and coal in the Kanawha district, and to fix the price for all the outside territory in which these were marketed. These companies had organized the C. & O. Fuel Company and severally bound themselves to deliver to the same their output for western shipment. A minimum price was fixed by an executive committee of the combination, and the C. & O. Fuel Company was required by the terms of the agreement to account for and pay over to the members of the association all profits over and above ten cents per ton, which it was to retain as compensation for its services.

That this was a combination in restraint of trade and competition is beyond doubt, but did it in any way interfere with interstate commerce? Judge Thompson held that the combination had direct relation to interstate commerce. Its object was to regulate and restrict the sale of West Virginia products in other states; to fix prices and eliminate natural competition in outside markets. "The attempt," he said, "to confer power to regulate and restrain interstate commerce by control is a usurpation of the functions of congress, and cannot be sustained on the ground that trade has not, in fact, been injured. The contract in question here, and the combination of the defendants thereunder, are in restraint of trade among the several states," etc.

If the Supreme Court sustains this view (which completely reverses the original one) the prosecutions under the federal law will multiply and reach nearly every important combination in the United States, for very few trusts confine their operations to the states in which they are severally located.



Much surprise, not to say apprehension, is expressed at the spirit and action of the national trade-union congress held recently

at Huddersfield. The British workmen are regarded as rather conservative, yet this congress, which represented one and a quarter millions of the most skilled and intelligent mechanics, adopted a resolution declaring Collectivism to be the goal of the labor movement. The presidential address was a scientific defense of Socialism, and no one alleges that the delegates voted on the radical resolution without a full understanding of its implications.

But are the British workmen Socialists? the newspaper editors ask. Perhaps not the average or mean member of the trades-union, but the leading and progressive member is

certainly disposed to accept the socialistic ideal of social and industrial organization. This is hardly surprising in a country in which even the Tory party advocates collectivist measures under the vague term "social legislation." The South African war has for the time being diverted attention from internal questions, but it is notorious that the chief features of the domestic program of the Conservative-Unionist party led by Salisbury and Chamberlain have been old-age pensions, housing of the poor by the municipalities and state absorption of public utilities. An English editor has justly observed that "social progress" has come to mean steps in the direction of Socialism, especially in his country.

Is it different in the United States? Are the ordinary trades-unionists here less radical in their politico-economic demands? A careful examination of the principles and professions of faith of the most powerful American labor organizations leads one to answer in the negative. The American Federation of Labor is generally recognized as one of the well-managed, conservative organizations of the country. Many will be astonished to learn that the political program of the federation embodies (1) nationalization of railways, telegraphs, telephones and mines; (2) municipal ownership and operation of street cars, gas, water and electric plants; (3) land nationalization; (4) the



F. Gutekunst, copyright 1896.

THE DUKE OF ABRUZZI,
Who has been nearer the
North Pole than Nansen.

issuance of money by the government and the abolition of bank note circulation; (5) the initiative and referendum, and (6) an elective federal judiciary.

No doubt the trades-union movement is primarily and essentially practical, and the majority of those connected with it expect no more than such immediate results as shorter hours, higher wages, better treat-



"WHITEHALL," MIDDLETOWN, R. I.

Built by George Berkeley, 1730. Purchased in 1900 by the Newport Society of the Colonial Dames.

ment and personal independence. Still, the philosophy of the movement, so far as it has any, is unquestionably socialistic, though some labor leaders are consistent Individualists, and believe that the solution of the larger labor problem lies in the abolition of monopoly and privilege rather than in state control of industry.

While it may be true, as some one has said, that America has no ruins to boast of, as England and other foreign countries have, yet there is much of historic interest in our country, the preservation of which is being guaranteed by the various patriotic societies of the country, which in this respect as well as in many others are serving a lofty and patriotic purpose. A chapter of the Daughters of the American Revolution in Troy, New York, for instance, offers prizes every year to the highest grade in the public schools for the best essays on Revolutionary subjects. The chapter at Ogdensburg, New York, marked the site of Fort La Présentation last year in a suitable manner. This was one of the last forts to be relinquished after the Jay treaty had definitely settled the boundary between the United States and

Canada. Another chapter in New York state recently gave a series of lectures on patriotic themes to the school children of the city, a number of well-known persons having been secured as lecturers. The chapter at Albany, New York, expended five hundred dollars last year toward the restoration of old Fort Crailo. In this building, when it is fully restored, the chapter will have a room for the preservation of its collection of relics. This chapter is also planning to place a tablet to the memory of Lord Hare in St. Peter's Church of Albany.



A modest farmhouse in the rural township of Middletown, Rhode Island, has recently been acquired by a local chapter of "Colonial Dames," and, if their plans are carried out, will be held in perpetual memory of the distinguished man who built it and for several years lived under its low-browed roof. This was the Rev. George Berkeley, then Dean of Derry and later Bishop of Cloyne. He had crowned his brilliant youth by the publication of the epoch-making essays in which he developed his celebrated idealistic philosophy, and his genius had been rewarded by a presentation to the best deanery in the three kingdoms. More than any other man of his times he was impressed with the duty and opportunity of England, then expanding into an imperial state, toward its American possessions. The thought kindled in his lines, of which one at least America has pronounced immortal:

The Muse disgusted at an age and clime
Barren of every glorious theme;
In distant lands now waits a better time,
Producing subjects worthy fame.

* * * * *

There shall be sung another golden age,
The rise of empires and of arts,
The good and great inspiring epic rage,
The wisest heads and noblest hearts.

Not such as Europe breeds in her decay,
Such as she bred when fresh and young,
When heavenly flame did animate her clay,
By future poets shall be sung.

Westward the course of empire takes its way,
The four first acts already past,
The fifth shall close the drama with the day,
Time's noblest offspring is the last.

Prone as we are to read "star" where he wrote "course," we must confess that the line has been, still is, and bids fair to continue, immensely popular in this country. The author of it came to the western world in 1728, and took up his residence near

Newport on his fine hundred-acre farm of Whitehall, in this simple but tasteful dwelling. His heart was set on establishing a college in Bermuda for the training of men for missionary and civilizing work on the continent of America. The government subsidy of twenty thousand pounds which had been promised to him never came, and in 1731, tired of waiting, Berkeley gave up in despair and returned to England. There he published his work called "Alciphron, or the Minute Philosopher," which he had written at Whitehall, and which Noah Porter has pronounced "justly distinguished as a classical treatise in English philosophical literature." On every page it breathes the spirit of the out-door life which its author lived on Honeyman's Hill, beneath the Hanging Rocks, and by the sands of Sachuest.

At Whitehall he lived as an English country squire, surrounded by men and women of culture and talent. Even after his return to England he did not forget the new world. His farm went to found the Berkeleyan Latin premium at Yale, and his rich donations of books were as a godsend to the struggling scholars at Yale and Harvard. The Dames do well to honor the philosopher, poet and friend of America.



The dissolution of the British parliament was not altogether unexpected. The

statutory limit of the duration of the parliament is seven years, but dissolution by royal proclamation in obedience to the wishes of the party in power is not unusual. It had been predicted that the Chamberlain faction of the Salisbury cabinet would insist on an "appeal to the country" immediately after the practical termination of the war in South Africa, though the late parliament, which was elected in 1895, had still two years to live. The aggressive imperialists, however, wanted a "khaki election"—that is, an election which shall turn upon the sole issue of the war and its result, the annexation of the two Dutch republics to the British empire.

At this writing the elections are well under way, and the outcome is predetermined. The Liberals concede the return of the Tories, but any reduction of the government majority would be considered a moral victory for the opposition. The paramount, if not the only, issue of the campaign is the foreign policy of the Tories and their Unionist allies. The Liberals, who were seriously divided on the question of the justice and necessity of the South African war, now recognize that the annexation of the republics is an accomplished fact which cannot be undone. But they assail the Salisbury cabinet for its blunders, inefficiency and weakness, and declare that its management of the war has destroyed England's military prestige and humiliated her as she had not been humiliated since the American Revolution. The Tory leaders assert that the needed army reforms and the pacification of South Africa cannot be safely entrusted to a party so disorganized as the Liberals are. In truth, the Liberals have no leaders and no party policy. Some of them are imperialists, others are opposed to what they describe as "expansion run mad." John Morley and Sir W. V. Harcourt are the chiefs of the latter faction; Lord Rosebery and Sir Edward Grey are the recognized spokesmen of the Liberal imperialists.

The general elections of 1895 were fought on social-economic issues. The Unionists went beyond the Radicals even in advocating "universal" old-age pensions for the poor, better housing of workmen, independent holdings for agricultural laborers, compensation for all accidents in factories, etc. Today all these questions are ignored, or barely mentioned by the Liberals, a striking change in so short a period, due to the wave of empire and the preëminence of international politics. "Home rule" is dead,



THE ABSENT MINDED BEGGARS.

JONES.—Say, Mark, I don't see any signs of your prosperity.

MARK.—You don't? Well, have you seen any free silver?

—Minneapolis Journal.

too, as an issue, though the Irish Nationalists are in alliance with the Liberals.



On the afternoon of Thanksgiving Day there is to be held in New York a delegate convention of lay Roman Catholic organizations, for the purpose of forming a federation of all lay societies within that communion. Such federation has been talked of for years, on a basis of mutual help. Some months ago Bishop McFaul, of Trenton, injected into the situation a semi-political appeal. His action created popular feeling, and the outcome seems likely to be federation at last. Catholic figures indicate a lay membership of two million five hundred thousand in these organizations, but Catholic statistics are not always to be relied on, and the probable number is nearer one million five hundred thousand. Bishop McFaul is a leader along such a line as is indicated by this political federation, for to him has been referred in times past several questions affecting the status of some of the societies, notably the Hibernians, in relation to the Catholic Church. One of these lay societies is a temperance one, another is the union which resembles the Young Men's Christian Association, some others are social, and a large majority possess insurance features. Some of the leaders talk glibly of gaining political rights through federation, but wiser Catholic leaders see spiritual and moral strength from it, and admit they are not quite sure, either that there are political rights needing to be gained, or that this is the best way to gain them. Only one of the societies admits women to membership, and that only in an auxiliary organization.



The rapid and extensive organization of women's clubs in this country has been one of the marvelous facts of the close of the century, and it is not surprising that the general movement has been adopted in other lands. The policy of excluding colored women from the clubs in this country has brought about the natural result, namely, organization of clubs known as the National Association of Colored Women. It is pledged to secure the coöperation of all women in raising the home and civic life of the colored people to a higher plane. Mrs. Booker T. Washington, who is one of the chief spirits of the organization, is frank enough to say that if there was ever a race of women that needed systematic and united effort for mental, moral and material prog-

ress it is the negro race of this country. This association has organizations in every state in the union, and many of these have a membership of several hundred. The association stands for earnest, practical work for the masses, for the aged, the poor, the unfortunate, and all who need its sympathy and support. While the National Council of Women has invited this association of colored women to become identified with it, the privilege has not yet been accepted. Individual members of the organization, however, as Mrs. Washington states, are closely allied with some of the largest and most influential bodies of white women.

The scope of the colored women's clubs naturally is not as largely social as that of the white women's clubs, because of the practical needs of the colored women. With the home as the basis of their work, they propose to consider also questions pertaining to the church and state. They seek to develop a higher type of morality among colored people, and especially among the young, to organize and hold mothers' meetings, to help the women to a better knowledge of the care of their homes and children, to improve sanitary conditions, and to discourage all unnecessary patronage of street cars and other public conveyances, as well as places of amusement where discrimination is made against them because of their color.



Missionary societies in England and America are feeling — is it the effects of improved times, or new interest in the spread of Christianity? The Church Missionary Society of England, the largest society in the world, passed for the first time the two million dollar mark in its annual receipts. Disciples of Christ have four principal societies, and three of them reached high-water mark in contributions this year. Presbyterian Foreign and Home, Methodist, Baptist Home, Episcopal, Lutheran General Council, all of these are not only out of debt but have larger receipts than ever before. Only the Baptist Foreign and the American Board, Congregational, are dragged down by debts, and the latter is making progress toward relief. Canadian and southern societies make similar reports. As for parochial enlargements, figures from Boston, Philadelphia, St. Louis, Chicago, Minneapolis and Pittsburg indicate high-water marks in amounts being expended. In New York City not less than four million dollars is going into new church enterprises or enlargement

and expansion of old ones, this autumn, an amount quite unprecedented.



Methodist women of the northwest raised the funds to erect the new Crandon Hall, Rome. This hall, named in honor of Mrs. F. P. Crandon, of Evanston, the corresponding secretary of the Northwestern Branch of the Woman's Foreign Mission Society, is to be the future home of the Young Ladies' Institute. Nearly two decades ago, when the Methodist Missionary Society's work was less extensive than it is now, a request was made to the woman's society for help in the work of Bible distribution. Miss Emma Hall, of Cazenovia, New York, who was among the earliest of such women in Rome, soon found in her work a large number of well-to-do young women who were eager for an education that should be imparted to them by others than priests and nuns. A small educational work was begun. The institute developed, not at once but in the course of a decade. There are more applications for admission to the college than there is space. Now the new Crandon Hall comes, and it is secure because the northwestern branch has contributed the money, and the Italian government has granted permission to erect the building. It is part of a great and growing work in Rome under Methodist direction, and is the chief thing, it is said, which has lately brought alarm to the pope, and caused him to warn his cardinal vicar to greater efforts to hold Rome for Roman Catholicism. This is not the first time the pope has taken official notice of Methodist work in Italy, for progress has not been made there unhindered.



Soon after the fall of Manila, Methodist missionaries were sent to that city, and it was not long before they had established themselves and secured a number of

native adherents. Among these was Nicholas Zamora, whose father had suffered great hardships at the hands of the friars because he was found reading the Bible some years ago. Nicholas Zamora was ordained as a minister of the Methodist Episcopal Church by Bishop Thoburn last spring and has devoted himself to church work with great

enthusiasm. Under his leadership a small Filipino congregation was formed in Pandacan, a suburb of Manila, and on the 12th of last August this congregation dedicated its first church. The building is by no means pretentious when compared to the great Roman Catholic churches of Manila, but it serves the purposes of the congregation admirably, and indicates in an unmistakable manner the establishment of Protestantism in the islands. The little church is on the site of a building which was partially destroyed by fire during the insurrection, and it



METHODIST EPISCOPAL CHURCH AT PANDACAN.
First Protestant Church ever dedicated in the Philippines.

was rented by the congregation for one dollar and a half a month; the building was repaired, and at a cost of about two hundred dollars (Mexican) has been put in satisfactory condition. On the day of dedication the sermon was preached by Bishop Frank W. Warne, of the Methodist Episcopal Church. The Filipinos furnished the funds for the renting and repair of the building and the entire enterprise is under native direction.



Theological seminaries never had such large entering classes as this year. Princeton, Union, Hartford, Harvard, Chicago, Auburn, Berkeley, Crozer, Newton, the General and other seminaries, representing all religious bodies, have from five to twenty per cent larger classes than in any previous year. Roman Catholic seminaries are also crowded. At Northfield the seminary and Mt. Hermon together have eight hundred and thirty-six pupils, a larger number than ever before. The same story comes from the Chicago Bible Institute.

MAIDS AND MATRONS OF NEW FRANCE.

II. PIONEER WOMEN OF QUEBEC.

BY MARY SIFTON PEPPER.



WHILE the majority of the Acadian colonists sought, like young Bien-court and his companions, nothing but novelty and adventure in the New World, there were a few of their compatriots who devoted their lives to the establishment of permanent settlements there. Of these the most conspicuous was Samuel de Champlain, one of those who had been at Port Royal, for, in truth, he had been haunting these fascinating shores since 1603. Once when on an expedition with another explorer he had sailed up the St. Lawrence as far as the present city of Montreal. It was on this occasion that his alert eye, ever on the watch for places more favorable to settlement than those already tried, detected the wonderful natural advantages of the promontory jutting out into the St. Lawrence. In imagination he saw there an imposing fortress rising from the crest of the impregnable rock, warehouses and marts of trade crowning its summit, ships from distant ports anchored at its wharves, and the fertile valley of the St. Lawrence dotted with the thrifty homes of the loyal subjects of France.

A year later, with a few hardy followers, he was established in this place; and thus, in the year 1608, was founded Quebec, the first permanent settlement in Canada. We will turn with him to this new scene of life and activity, and learn something of those pioneer women who in succeeding years made this their home.

DAME HEBERT, A PIONEER MATRON OF QUEBEC.

On one of his frequent visits to the mother country Champlain made a strong appeal for a few thrifty householders to emigrate to the new settlement, offering

them many flattering inducements. A number of families yielded to his urgency and cast in their lot with his colony across the sea. The most prominent of these was Louis Hebert, an apothecary of Paris, who also had been with the Port Royal colonists.

He repaired with his wife and family to Honfleur, whence the ship that was to take them to America was to sail. It weighed anchor April 11, 1617. After buffeting for three long months with the winds and waves of the Atlantic, and the treacherous tides and ice of the St. Lawrence, the new colo-

nists finally reached their destination. The Heberts proved to be the only ones who had come to stay.

In the course of a few years a house was built in the Upper Town. With its surrounding garden-plot and cattle-sheds this cottage proved a welcome sight to Champlain as he made his way up the rocky heights, and he would gladly have brought over more of such settlers; but his efforts in this direction were continually thwarted through the indifference of the mother country, for at this time it was seriously engaged in commercial and religious contentions in which the interests of its colonies played but a small part.

From the time of her arrival until her death, many years later, Dame Hebert was the mother of the colony. Her home was the rendezvous for all the inhabitants of the place, Indian as well as French. Many of the prominent Canadian families of the last century could claim descent from this worthy woman. Her name was identified with the principal events which took place in the little colony for the next quarter of a century, from acting as god-mother to all the Indian infants that were baptized, to protecting in her palisaded cottage the frightened settlers fleeing from the tomahawks of the yelling Iroquois.



CHAMPLAIN MONUMENT ON DUFFERINE TERRACE, QUEBEC.

Some months after their arrival in Quebec Anne Hebert, the eldest daughter, was married to a young trader named Stephen Jonquest. This was the first marriage ceremony



COUILLARD STREET, QUEBEC.

performed in Canada, and was two years and a half earlier than the first marriage celebrated in New England. Little more is said of this couple in the annals of the times, but frequent reference is made to the second daughter, Guillemette, after her marriage to Monsieur Couillard two years later. For half a century she was conspicuous in the life of Quebec. In the year 1678, when the bones of her father, who has been called the "Abraham" of the colony, were taken up from their first resting place and interred with great honor in the new chapel, the first to be placed there, Madame Couillard, then an old and feeble woman, was carried thither to witness the ceremonies. She is recalled to the American traveler of today by Couillard street, one of the narrow, crooked alleys of Quebec, whose ancient dwellings exhale memories of a historic past.

HELEN DE CHAMPLAIN, THE FIRST
LADY OF CANADA.

A contemporary of Dame Hebert at Quebec for the short period of four years was the young wife of Samuel de Champlain. She was the daughter of the Sieur de Boullé, secretary to the king's chamber, and sister of one

of Champlain's fellow navigators. It was through his acquaintance with the latter that Champlain became attached to Helen, and when she was but a child of twelve asked her hand in marriage. A contract was drawn up in which it was agreed that her dowry of forty-five hundred francs should be immediately turned over to him, but that she should remain in the home of her parents until she had attained a suitable age. Meanwhile, he returned to Quebec with this capital which he sorely needed to keep his little colony from ruin.

In the year 1620, the same year the Pilgrim Mothers landed at Plymouth Rock, Madame de Champlain crossed the ocean with her husband to establish her home on the inhospitable shores of the New World. Quebec at this time was at its lowest ebb. As she disembarked what did this child of luxurious surroundings behold? A few dirty, half-clad Indians, who looked at her in stupefied amazement that anything so beautiful had consented to come among them. Instead of the manorial estates and gallant cavaliers she had pictured in her imagination, she saw the homely cottage of the Hebert family, and the crude, irregular habitation of Champlain, neglected and half in ruins. The cavaliers were a few ragged French adventurers, who forgot their native chivalry in their eagerness to learn the state of the returning governor's purse. She took up her residence in the dilapidated habitation with the three maids she had brought with her, and began to face a life of exile with a husband thirty years her senior.



CHAMPLAIN'S HABITATION.

Monsieur de Champlain, who was so strict and pious a Catholic that he declared the

conquest of a continent of less moment than the conversion of the savages to the true faith, discovered soon after bringing his wife to Canada that she professed the Huguenot faith of her father. He lost no time in applying himself vigorously to her conversion. Nothing could have been more conducive to his purpose than the strict religious observances followed out in his household.

While the family was partaking of breakfast one of his attendants read aloud from some sacred historian, and at evening from the "Lives of the Saints." Public prayers were said frequently during the day, and morning, noon and night the *Angelus* was rung to admonish the little colony of the duty of silent prayer. In such an atmosphere it is not strange that Helen gradually gave up her Huguenot doctrines and accepted the Catholic faith of her husband; in truth, his efforts in her behalf were more than successful, for she not only became an ardent Catholic, but resolved to become a nun.

Meanwhile, she devoted herself assiduously to the instruction of the wandering Indians who daily gathered about her door. To them this beautiful creature from beyond the sea was something almost more than human, and they gladly would have worshiped her instead of that unseen deity in whom she was continually urging them to believe. She wore dangling at her belt one of those chate-laines so dear to the young girls of the present day. In the tiny mirror of this trinket they saw reflected their bristling hair and painted faces, and, in awe and wonder, promised all the divinity asked of them in return for one look into its magical surface.

At last want of the comforts and luxuries to which she always had been accustomed so wore upon her health, and homesickness and domestic unhappiness upon her spirits, that Champlain resolved to take her back to France. They sailed August 15, 1624, and when she once more reached her native land she resolved never again to leave it, but as soon as possible to put her plan of becoming a nun into execution. She finally founded a

convent, and died at the age of fifty-six in the halo of saintship.

Champlain returned to Quebec, where all his interests were centered, and which seemed to hold a dearer place in his heart than his young wife. Ten years more of activity in New France, where he was ever the ruling spirit, and the great navigator passed away in the place which had been



MADAME DE LA PELTRIE.

the scene of so many struggles and adventures, on Christmas Day, 1635, unsoothed by woman's gentle ministrations, but sped on his way to heaven by those of two missionaries. He was laid away in the land of his exile, but the spot where this Canadian pioneer was buried has never been authentically located.

For many years Dame Hebert and Helen de Champlain were the only women pioneers to take up their residence in New France. In 1634 the surgeon Giffard and his family emigrated and built a substantial stone manor house at Beau-

port, a league's distance from Quebec. Here a family of sons and daughters was reared who gave to Canada a numerous posterity that became distinguished in the literary, religious and political life of the community. But the inducements so cheerfully set forth by the missionary, "piety, freedom and independence," were not powerful enough to attract other families. Particularly as these advantages had to be enjoyed under the strict laws laid down by the zealous priests or pious and narrow-minded governors, who punished any who failed to attend religious service with the pillory or whipping-post.

It was under these conditions that the emigration of settlers for the next twenty years was limited, and was confined almost wholly to single men who came over on missions of war, trade or adventure, and to single women whose purpose was to Christianize the savages rather than to people the country. The first and most conspicuous of these were Madame de la Peltre and Mother Marie Guyard of the Incarnation.

While Champlain and his sturdy band of pioneers were bartering skins with the

friendly Hurons and making occasional sallies against the Iroquois, the missionaries there were combating a more formidable foe, the barbarism and superstition of these savages. Yet up to this time little had been accomplished in this warfare, and Father Le Jeune, superior of the mission, realizing how futile had been their efforts, one day sent a plaintive cry across the ocean for money and reinforcements. His idea at this time was that if the children could be civilized and reared in the Christian religion, through their influence the parents would eventually become Christianized, "for in no other way," he declared, "can anything be made of these old stumps."

He pointed out how easy it would be for some benevolent French lady to establish a school for girls. (One had already been established for boys, the famous Jesuit college of Quebec, which antedates Harvard College by one year.) In his letter of 1635 he urged the need of such institutions more strongly than ever. "My God!" wrote this zealous missionary, "if the excess and superfluity of certain dames of France were employed in this so holy work, what blessings would they not bring down upon their families! What glory in the eyes of the angels to have gathered up the blood of the Son of God and to have applied it to these poor unbelievers!"

**MADAME DE LA PELTRIE, FOUNDESS OF THE
SCHOOL FOR INDIAN GIRLS.**

The greatest ladies of France read these reports of the Canadian missionaries with avidity, and a lively interest was aroused in their hearts over the woes of the poor savages. One of these whose name has come down to posterity was Madame de la Peltrie, a widow of high rank and great wealth. She determined to go to Canada and establish such a school. No obstacles proved insurmountable to her ardent spirit, although she was finally driven to contracting a mock marriage with Monsieur de Bernières, the treasurer of France, to deceive her relatives, in order thus to carry out her purpose.

Four years elapsed before her plans were perfected. Finally, a party of women, all of whom were to play a more or less important part in the pioneer life of Canada, was made up to inaugurate this movement in the new colonies. It consisted of Madame de la Peltrie, whose income was to go to the maintenance of the Indian school; Mother Marie Guyard of the Incarnation, who was to be principal of it; Marie de St. Bernard, an

assistant, who proved to be one of the most worthy pioneers in the cause of education in Canada, although her name is scarcely known outside the annals of the Ursuline convent; Charlotte Barré, companion to Madame de la Peltrie; and another little group of women called Hospitalières, or hospital nurses, who proved equally as efficient in their work of charity, and who are recalled to the traveler of today by the magnificent Hotel Dieu of Quebec, the oldest hospital in Canada. On the 4th of May, 1639, these seven women, together with a number of missionaries who were going over to reinforce their brethren, embarked for the scene of their future labors.

Preceding them across the Atlantic, let us join the little company gathered at the landing-place in Quebec to meet them. Of the two hundred and fifty settlers, nearly all were present. There was the new governor, the Sieur de Montmagny, successor to Champlain, attended by a small retinue of soldiers attired in all the martial splendor they could muster. Near by were the missionaries, forming, in their long black robes and broad-



FATHER LE JEUNE.

(From an old print.)

brimmed hats, a striking contrast to the gaily attired soldiers. Holding aloof stood a group of Algonquin Indians, whose naked or scantily clad figures and painted faces indicated how futile had been the attempts of the missionaries at civilizing them. Nor were women wanting in this gathering of Quebec citizens. Madame Couillard was there, with her now grown-up daughters about her, as well as the wife and daughters of the surgeon, Monsieur Giffard, and the



GARDEN OF THE URSULINE SEMINARY.

fair Madeleine de Repentigny, daughter of the admiral of the French fleet.

Amid a volley of musketry these pioneers in woman's charitable and educational work in Canada stepped on shore, "coming forth from their floating prisons," said Father Le Jeune, "as fresh and rosy as when they left their homes in France." In a transport of joy they all fell upon their knees and kissed the soil of their new country, which they declared themselves willing to moisten with their sweat, and, if need be, to dye with their blood. Headed by the pious governor, they went in a procession to the little church to thank God for their safe arrival after a long and perilous voyage. On the way thither, Madame de la Peltrie stopped and kissed all the little redskinned maidens whom she met, not minding in the least, says the historian, whether they were dirty or not.

That night the foundresses of the first school for girls in Canada lay down on their hard pallets of pine twigs, weary and sick at heart over the misery and degradation which confronted them. The brilliant hues with which their imagination had painted this scene of their future work became ashen and dull. In their dreams they were enveloped by the smoke and filth of the squalid wigwams, pursued by naked savages with uplifted tomahawks, black-robed priests turned forbiddingly from them, and the ship which had brought them to these shores appeared as a dim speck on the horizon, relentlessly pursuing

its way back to France. But when they were awakened the next morning by the guns of the fort firing the morning salute, heard the chapel bell calling to early service, and saw the brilliant August sun streaming into their chamber windows, hope and courage awoke



OLD FRENCH INN, QUEBEC.

On the site of the first girls' school in Canada.

again in their breasts. Filled with the thought of the great work that was before

them they arose and went forth to put their hands to the plow, to till this field that had lain fallow for centuries.

Madame de la Peltrie's life in New France is inseparably associated with the school she founded, for it afterwards developed into the great Ursuline seminary of Quebec, still active and flourishing after more than two and a half centuries. She and her companions took up their residence in a little two-roomed house previously used as a warehouse, which they playfully called their palace. It was in the Lower Town, near what is now known as the Champlain Market. The French inn now occupying this site is so old and quaint and foreign that the traveler stopping there finds little difficulty in carrying himself back over the long flight of years and conjuring up vivid pictures of the landing of these gentle French ladies.

The school began with six Indian and a few French girls. But soon reports of this wonderful institution, where girls, irrespective of race or condition, were taken in, clothed in beautiful garments, and given plenty of food, spread throughout the neighboring country, and crowds of redskinned maidens flocked thither. So many made their appearance that the miniature seminary could not accommodate them all, and soon a larger and more commodious building was erected in the Upper Town, on the same site the school occupies today.

Madame de la Peltrie threw herself into the work of caring for these little savages with all the enthusiasm of her ardent French nature. She assumed the duty of teaching them the more polite accomplishments, while Mother Marie and the other two women instructed them in the principles of the Catechism and the French language. It became her favorite diversion, after spending an hour or two in teaching them to sew, to dress them up like little French children, and take them to visit their parents or to the chapel not far distant; and grotesque looking little objects they were, with tight Norman caps covering their black and glistening locks, and snowy kerchiefs pinned round their tawny throats. They regulated all their actions by hers, and frequently astonished those about them by making an elaborate curtsey like a grand dame of France.

Their devotion to godly exercises was praiseworthy, for one frequently stumbled upon them in the most unexpected places kneeling and piously telling their beads, piping out the chorus in a shrill minor key in

the seminary choir, or cornering their astonished Indian relatives and proposing to them the knotty questions of the Catechism. They became greatly attached to their cicerone. Her beauty, elegance of deportment and high breeding impressed themselves even upon their untutored minds, and they willingly left their parents to follow her. It



HABITANT OF THE ST. LAWRENCE COUNTRY.

was one of her duties to inculcate in them purity and modesty, two virtues almost unknown to them. They devoted themselves so assiduously to the cultivation of these virtues, that, when one of their number would appear with her neck bare, they would point the finger of shame at her; and once, when a man attempted to shake hands with little Indian Marie, she ran away in terror and diligently washed the infected spot.

It will be seen from these incidents how readily the daughters of the red men took to the new order of things inaugurated by this institution. Yet early in its history the main object of its establishment, the education and Christianizing of these Indian girls, failed of success, and it was afterwards devoted principally to the education of the daughters of French settlers.

After passing thirty-three years of her life in New France, Madame de la Peltrie died there in 1671, at the age of sixty-eight

years. She never separated herself from the world by any religious vows. But the companion of her exile who had crossed the ocean with her and who for thirty years was her counselor and friend, was an Ursuline nun. This was the distinguished woman known in Canadian history as "Mother Marie Guyard of the Incarnation."

MOTHER MARIE GUYARD OF THE INCARNATION.

Almost every event of Marie Guyard's life has been recorded, either by her own pen or that of some faithful historian. Her letters and memoirs form the basis of the most valuable histories of the earliest days of Canada. They are quoted both by secular and ecclesiastical writers, for no movement in the colony from the time of her arrival in 1639, whether it had to do with trade, exploration, politics or religion, escaped her observation or the record of her faithful pen. She gives her opinion of all the new arrivals, bishops, officers and governors; she knew the history and characteristics of all the neighboring Indian tribes; she kept watch of the public morals, helped the poor, reproved the indolent, cheered the discouraged, and was, in truth, the inspiration of the little colony for nearly thirty-five years. She is met with more frequently, perhaps, than any other woman in the stories of early Canadian life. Ecclesiastical writers have pronounced eloquent eulogies on her character, and one, the Abbé Casgrain, has filled three small volumes with the history of her life. As her interest for us is chiefly centered in the seminary of which she was the first principal, and as that has already been sufficiently dwelt upon, we will pass on to other remarkable women of this period.

But before leaving these two, let us turn our footsteps for a moment to the scene of their labors. Among the historic edifices of Quebec none is of greater interest than the seminary on Parloir street. It is a long, irregular pile of buildings, extending

over several acres on one of the most beautiful sites of the Upper Town. Mother Marie Guyard's twentieth-century successor in this now famous institution, a delicate little lady of more than fourscore years, meets the visitor at the small iron grating and talks pleasantly of the many interesting features of the place. The picture is shown wherein is represented, in harsh outlines and lurid colors, the original seminary with Madame de la Peltrie's house in the foreground, while in the dense forest in the rear is conspicuous the hoary ash under which Mother Marie sat and taught the daughters of the red men Christianity and civilization. The historic events of later times are also commemorated here, for in the chapel of this seminary lie the bones of General Montcalm, his skull, for greater security, being kept in the apartments of the chaplain.

Let us cast our eyes over the seminary garden, visible from the windows of our hotel. Every known vegetable seems to be growing there — not only growing, but luxuriating, and promising many a savory *potage* for the gentle ladies' winter dinners. One

parterre is devoted to flowers, gorgeous midsummer blossoms, hollyhocks, sunflowers, asters, dahlias, phlox and geraniums. In a small rustic arbor sit several black-robed sisters, telling their beads or engaged in meditation. Are their thoughts flitting back, perchance, over the long lapse of years to the primitive beginnings of this institution, and do they see, in their imagination, those fair lilies of France transplanted here and shedding their beauty and fragrance on the primeval growths of the forest? The gray silence within the stone walls answers not, and with a sigh at the forgetfulness and ingratitude of posterity, we turn to the great river, for our sails are spread and the gentle breeze lures us onward to the city of Jacques Cartier's dreams.

(To be continued.)



A HURON WOMAN OF LORETTE,
Descendant of the tribe who took refuge
with the French of Quebec in 1649.

SHIP-CARRYING TRADE UNDER AMERICAN AND FOREIGN FLAGS.

BY GEORGE B. WALDRON.



SEVENTY-FIVE years ago over ninety per cent of all the exports and imports of the United States were carried under our own flag. Today the conditions are reversed. Foreign vessels transport more than ninety per cent of our ocean traffic. The most prosperous year of foreign trade in our history was closed on June 30 last. Our total exports and imports aggregated two thousand two hundred and forty-four million dollars, and two thousand and seventy-three millions of these were carried by ocean vessels. Yet only one hundred and ninety-two million dollars of the entire trade was carried under the American flag. Foreign vessels transported one thousand eight hundred and eighty-one millions, or nearly ninety-one per cent. Never before have the ships of other countries carried so large a value of our international commerce.

To find the most prosperous years of our carrying trade we must go back to 1857. Then vessels flying the American flag carried our exports and imports to the value of five hundred and ten million dollars. This was more than seventy per cent of our total foreign trade, which then aggregated seven hundred and twenty-four millions. Our foreign trade today has multiplied threefold, while the value of our American-carried goods is divided by three. Our low-water mark was for the fiscal year 1899, when less than one hundred and sixty-one million dollars of goods sailed under the American flag. Not even during the Civil war, when the energies of the entire nation were concentrated on military and naval operations, and when swift ships were scouring the seas for the purpose of destroying shipping, did the nation's vessels carry so little value. Our losses have been the gains of foreign ship-owners whose vessels now carry nearly nine times as much of our exports and imports as they did in 1857. The expansion and subsequent falling off of our carrying trade is well shown in the accompanying table, which gives for representative years from 1821 to date the total trade of the United States, the values carried by our own and foreign ships and our own percentage of

the total. Rarely have figures presented an exhibit so impressive.

AMERICAN TRADE IN HOME AND FOREIGN VESSELS.

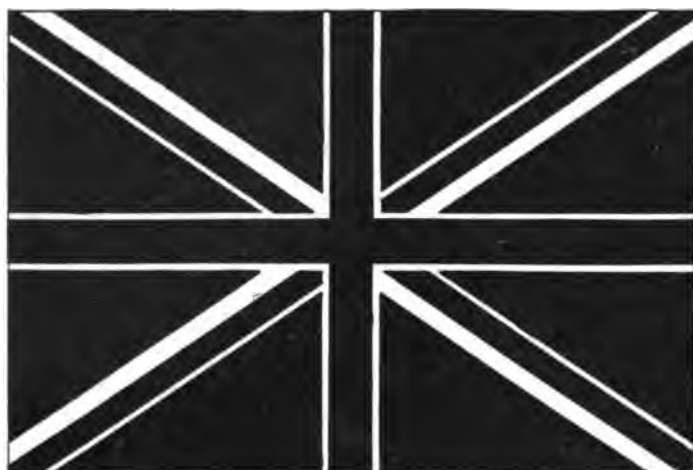
Years.	Total trade. Millions of dollars.	In foreign vessels. Millions of dollars.	In American vessels. Millions of dollars.	Per cent.
1821	127.6	14.4	113.2	88.8
1825	195.9	14.9	181.0	92.4
1848	309.0	70.7	238.3	77.4
1850	330.0	90.7	239.3	72.5
1855	577.3	170.6	406.7	70.5
1857	723.9	213.6	510.3	70.5
1860	762.3	255.1	507.2	66.5
1864	669.9	485.8	184.1	27.5
1865	604.4	437.0	167.4	27.7
1870	991.9	638.9	353.0	35.6
1871	1,109.5	755.8	353.7	31.9
1873	1,313.0	966.7	346.3	26.4
1875	1,199.0	884.7	314.3	26.2
1880	1,482.6	1,224.3	258.3	17.4
1885	1,274.3	1,079.4	194.9	15.3
1890	1,573.6	1,371.1	202.5	12.9
1892	1,784.7	1,564.5	220.2	12.3
1895	1,456.4	1,285.9	170.5	11.7
1898	1,743.8	1,582.5	161.3	9.3
1899	1,806.9	1,646.3	160.6	8.9
1900	2,072.9	1,881.2	191.7	9.3

If our own ships are not carrying our international commerce, where shall we look to find the successful carriers? The answer comes in another table compiled from the "Monthly Summaries of Commerce and Finance" prepared by the United States Treasury. These figures for the fiscal year ended June 30 last, are subject to slight corrections, but they may be accepted as substantially indicative of the carrying trade of the greatest commercial year in our history.

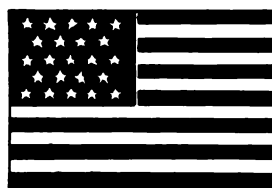
CARRYING FLAG OF AMERICAN IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

Year ended June 30, 1900.

Carrying Flag.	Imports. Millions of dollars.	Exports. Millions of dollars.	Imports and Exports. Millions of dollars.	Per cent.
British . . .	425.7	820.4	1,246.1	60.37
German . . .	98.6	146.7	245.3	11.89
French . . .	62.1	25.0	87.1	4.21
Norwegian . .	30.0	39.7	69.7	3.37
Dutch . . .	25.8	34.7	60.5	2.93
Belgian . . .	24.5	19.6	44.1	2.14
Italian . . .	3.6	11.0	14.6	.71
Other Foreign	29.5	72.6	102.1	4.94
Total Foreign	699.8	1,169.7	1,869.5	90.56
American . .	106.7	88.1	194.8	9.44
Total by ship	806.5	1,257.8	2,064.3	100.00



BRITISH.



AMERICAN.



OTHER FOREIGN.



GERMAN.



FRENCH.



NORWEGIAN.



DUTCH.



BELGIAN.



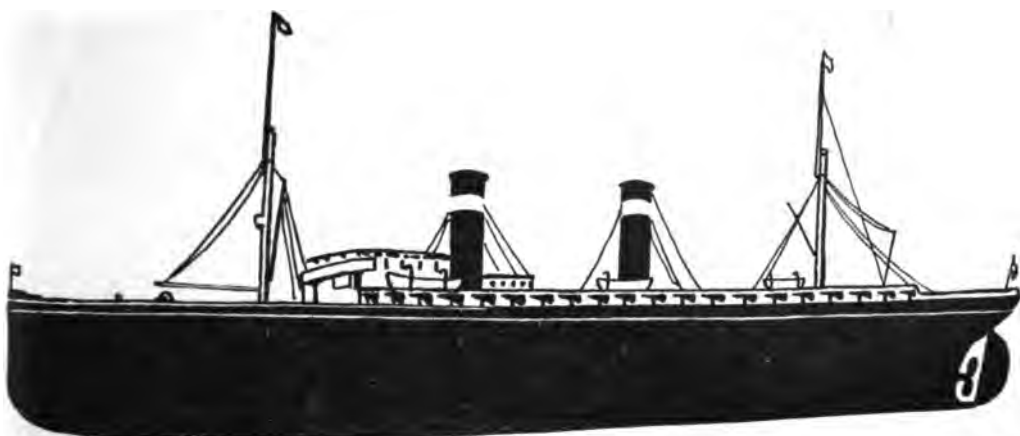
ITALIAN.

FLAGS UNDER WHICH OUR GOODS ARE CARRIED.

These drawings represent national flags proportioned according to the percentages in the last column of the table at the foot of page 137.

From this table it appears that the ships of Great Britain last year carried more than sixty per cent of all our exports and imports. This was two-thirds of the entire carrying trade of foreign vessels in our ports. Next comes Germany whose ships carried twelve per cent, only a fifth as large as Great Britain's share, yet nearly a third larger than our own. The ships of France carried only four per cent, which was less than half the amount that fell to our own vessels. Yet we carried more to and from our own ports than did the combined fleets of the Norwegians, Dutch, Belgians and Italians. Surely another triumph (?) for American audacity!

When one comes to make similar comparisons of the carrying trade of other countries, the figures, unfortunately, are less exact. This is due to the fact that the comparisons to be made are not of the values, nor even of the tonnage, of goods carried in home and foreign bottoms. It is rather of the tonnage capacity of vessels entering and leaving the ports of the several countries in their foreign trade. The figures only roughly exhibit the conditions. For example, as already noted, only a little over nine per cent of the values of our own imports and exports last year was carried in American vessels. Yet nearly twenty-two per cent of the vessel tonnage engaged in this traffic was our own. Vessels to the total of fifty-six million tons entered and left our harbors, and of this twelve million tons belonged to the United States. An illustration of this crudeness of measurement is a British steamer which recently entered New York harbor with a cargo, it was reported, of only three small dogs and



BRITISH, 9,000,000 tons.

two white mice. The vessel's outgoing cargo, however, told a different story.

Uncertain as the method of comparison by vessel tonnage is, however, it is valuable, in the absence of more exact measurements, in showing the general tendency. The accompanying table gives for the world's leading nations the total tonnage of vessels in foreign trade entering and clearing each country's ports, and the proportion of this tonnage under home flags. A column of percentages is added to make the comparisons more easy. The figures are for 1898 except as otherwise indicated.

CARRYING TRADE OF THE WORLD'S LEADING NATIONS.

Tonnage of Vessels Entering and Clearing in 1898.

	Total tonnage.	Under Home Flags. Tonnage.	Per cent.
United Kingdom	90,964,238	64,217,000	70.6
France	33,563,852	9,536,826	28.4
Germany <i>a</i> . . .	33,116,598	17,521,541	52.9
Italy	59,483,082	36,518,734	61.4
Austria <i>a</i> . . .	24,228,022	21,803,220	90.0
Hungary	4,029,429	2,538,540	63.0
The Netherlands	17,357,682	4,412,610	25.5
Belgium	16,517,610	2,972,901	18.0
Spain <i>b</i>	15,265,103	6,717,698	44.1
Sweden <i>a</i>	14,877,813	5,299,623	35.6
Norway <i>a</i>	6,133,317	4,085,586	66.6
United States <i>c</i>	56,021,772	12,161,051	21.7
Canada <i>d</i>	12,585,485	7,806,813	62.0
China	34,233,580	8,187,572	23.9
Japan	6,915,023	1,774,643	25.7

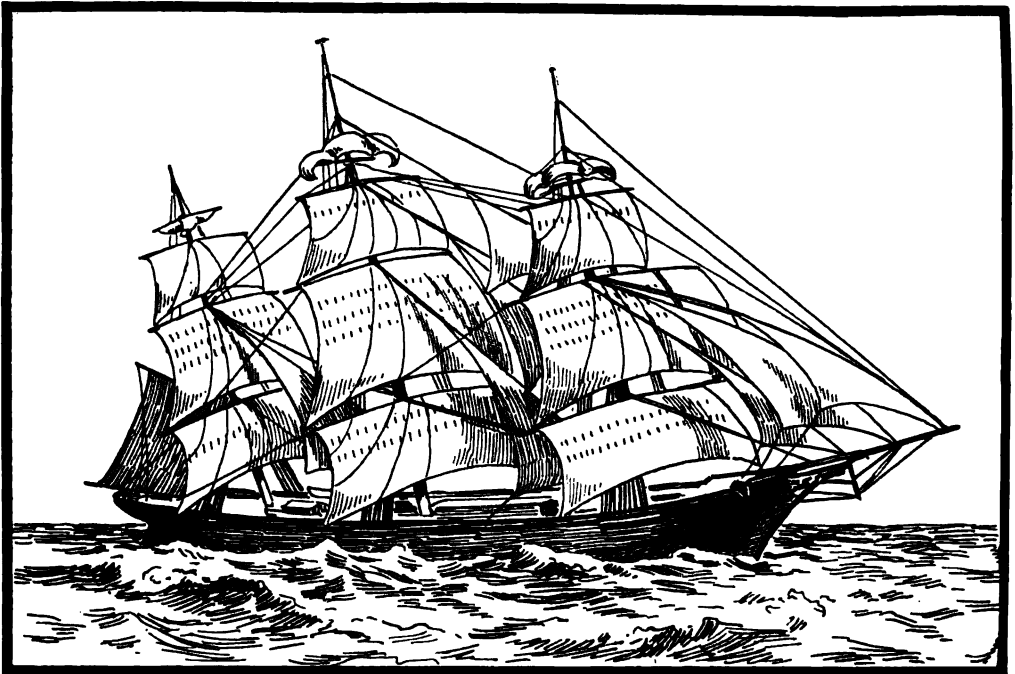
a For the year 1897. *b* For the year 1899. *c* For the year ended June 30, 1900. *d* The tonnage under home flag includes both British and Canadian vessels.

In this tabulation the United Kingdom makes the best showing both as to total tonnage and as to tonnage under the home flag. Her percentage of 70.6 is exceeded only by that of Austria, which leads the list at 90 per cent. Contrast these with our own of only 21.7 per cent. Italy, with

SCANDINAVIAN,
2,000,000 tons.GERMAN,
1,650,000 tons.DUTCH,
1,650,000 tons.UNITED STATES,
850,000 tons.FRENCH,
450,000 tons.ITALIAN,
430,000 tons.

CARRYING CAPACITY OF SHIPS OF LEADING NATIONS ENGAGED IN INTERNATIONAL TRADE.

These drawings represent, on the basis of linear measurement only, the total tonnage of vessels in use belonging to the various countries.



AMERICAN CLIPPER OF ABOUT 1855.

practically the same gross tonnage as the United States, owns 61.4 per cent of the tonnage entering her ports. In fact, of the world's leading countries represented, our country foots the list in the percentage under her flag. Japan and even China make a better showing.

It is evident that if a nation carried her full share of her exports and imports, fifty per cent, roughly, would sail under her own flag. The other fifty per cent would be carried under the flags of the nations with whom she trades, each taking its share in proportion to its commerce. On this basis Great Britain should own about forty-five million tons of the ninety millions that annually enter and clear her ports. She actually owns sixty-four million tons, which is nearly a half more than her share. This leaves only twenty-six million tons to be divided among the other nations. In the ownership of this foreign tonnage, Norway heads the list with six and one-half million tons, or twenty-five per cent. Germany owns four and one-half million tons, or seventeen per cent. Denmark, Sweden and the Netherlands own about ten per cent each. France owns two million tons or seven and one-half per cent. Our own share is but three hundred and fifteen thousand tons, which is only a little over one per cent of all the foreign tonnage entering and leaving Great Britain's

ports. Contrast this with the thirty million tons of British shipping that enter and clear our own ports every year. And this when the interchange of goods between the two countries aggregates seven hundred million dollars annually! Great Britain sends ninety-four times as much ship tonnage to our ports as we do to hers.

While the tonnage of German ports is not so large as that of Great Britain, it presents a creditable showing for home ownership. Of the thirty-three million tons entering and clearing, seventeen and one-half millions, or fifty-three per cent, are under the home flag. Germany is thus carrying her full quota. Great Britain has the lion's share of the tonnage under foreign flags, claiming all but six million tons, or sixty-one per cent of the fifteen and one-half million tons of foreign bottoms in German ports. Denmark owns twelve per cent, and Sweden and Norway together twenty per cent. German vessels to the aggregate of over four million tons enter and clear American harbors each year, and the total trade between the two nations is two hundred and fifty million dollars yearly. But only one dollar in seven hundred of this is carried under the American flag.

France trades one hundred and fifty millions a year with us and we carry of this trade one dollar in fifteen. The Netherlands trade one hundred millions, of which we

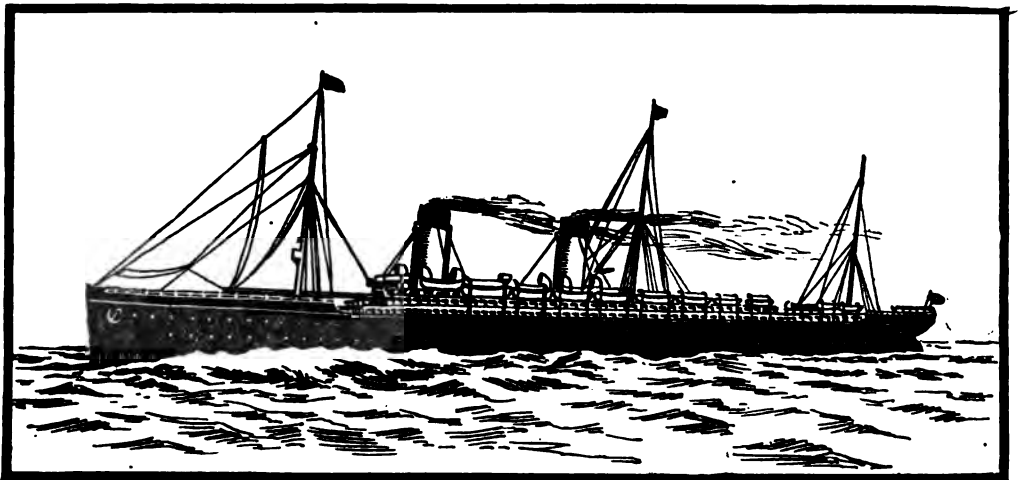
carry only one dollar in eighteen hundred. Italy trades sixty millions, of which we carry one in thirty. Belgium trades sixty millions with us, and our own share is but one in four hundred. Spain exchanges twenty millions with us, and we carry one dollar in one hundred and seventy. We carry one dollar in thirty-five of our trade with the British Isles, and only one in four hundred of our German trade. Among our own possessions the figures are better. We carry one-eighth of our trade with the Philippines, four-fifths of the Hawaiian and eleven-twelfths of our Porto Rican trade. We also carry one-half of our Cuban trade. Of our entire trade with South America, our ships carry a seventh; also a similar proportion of our Japanese trade, while one-sixth of our Chinese trade is under the American flag.

The best days of American shipping, as already stated, were in the fifties and early sixties before the Civil war. Over five hundred million dollars, or seventy per cent of our foreign traffic then was carried in American bottoms. Our entire merchant marine exceeded five and one-half million tons, and nearly equaled that of Great Britain. Never before or since have we had so large a vessel tonnage. Of this tonnage two and one-half millions were engaged in foreign trade. Today our total merchant marine is less than five million tons, only a sixth of which is employed in international traffic. At the same time Great Britain has increased her shipping to nine million tons, more than a half larger than that of forty years ago. Nearly eight millions of this tonnage is engaged in foreign trade. Great Britain is

increasing her tonnage by new boats at the rate of six hundred thousand tons annually. Our own new vessel building, including the additions for our inland commerce, is but half that tonnage.

What causes have brought about this decadence in American ship carrying? In the main they have been economic. American shipping interests emerged from the Revolutionary war and the War of 1812 with an impetus that carried them rapidly forward. Our sailors had been trained for peaceful commerce in the school of war. Our forests contained practically unlimited raw materials in the cheapest form. The industry required but little capital. All the conditions were ripe for the forward movement, and American shrewdness and energy was quick to take advantage of the opening. Packet ships of home build were rapidly launched for the ocean carrying trade. The result was that by 1825 we were carrying ninety-two and one-half per cent of all the goods we imported or exported — the largest percentage in our history.

By the middle of the century the shipbuilders of this country, with true American contempt for precedent, cut loose from old trammels and brought out a new ship, built chiefly for speed. The American clipper, laden with American goods, became a familiar sight in all the great harbors of the world. It was yet the day of sailing vessels, though the steamer was beginning to make a place for itself. With favorable trade winds, the clipper ship was able to rival the speed records of many a steam freighter, even of today. Our ship building still had the



THE "OCEANIC"—LARGEST STEAMSHIP IN THE WORLD.

Length over all—704 feet. Extreme breadth—68 ft. 4½ in. Depth—49 feet.

WHAT IS THE STUDENT IN COLLEGE FOR?

BY CHARLES F. THWING, D. D., LL. D.

(President of Western Reserve University and Adelbert College.)



NO part of college life is more delightful than hearing students talk about themselves. Their aims and conditions, their teachers, studies, and sports represent their world. All that interests them interests the college officer, and the more interesting their interests are to themselves the more interesting these interests are to the college officer.

Recently I asked many boys and girls, members of the incoming classes, the rather serious question of what they are in college for. The answers were made in writing in five minutes. Their brief and categorical replies reveal the fundamental purposes which are controlling not only the few Freshmen immediately concerned, but also the thousands of other boys and girls now beginning their college careers.

Possibly what these papers do not contain is quite as significant as what they do. A few of them, but only a few, make any reference to a professional purpose. Not more than two of the papers of the girls and not more than three of those of the boys intimate that they are getting a liberal education for the sake of getting a professional one. The contrast between the college youth of today, not thinking at all of his professional or other career, and the college youth of the year 1800, thinking of the ministry, is clear and sharp. A hundred years ago the typical man entered the college with the assured purpose of becoming a minister. Today the boy enters the college with the general purpose of becoming a larger man. The men of today, too, who feel that at the earliest possible hour they must earn money, either do not go to college at all or they go to a technical school. After three or four years spent in a technical school, graduates are able to earn good wages. After three or four years spent in a liberal college the bachelor is hardly more able to earn his daily bread than when he graduated from the high school. There is a supreme truth in the remark, which must however be properly interpreted, that "the college does not teach anything useful." This is, in fact, its chief glory.

It is also possibly significant that hardly

more than three per cent of the papers contain any reference to the religious motive in education. That the motive is not absent, or that it has taken on an ethical form, I thoroughly believe; but the absence of it from the formal replies is certainly suggestive. The contrast between the reticence of the college man of today regarding his religious condition and the freedom of expression of a hundred years and more ago is quite as sharp as the contrast between the present lack of a professional purpose and the presence of it in the college student of a hundred years ago. When one contrasts these papers with the resolutions which Jonathan Edwards drew up in his earlier career, it is easy to see that a great change has passed over the minds of young men. Of course, Jonathan Edwards is not a fair representative of the young man of the earlier time, and yet even he was influenced by his age. What young man in college today would make for himself such resolutions as he drew up, among which were:

"Resolved, never to do, be, or suffer, anything in soul or body, less or more, but what tends to the glory of God.

"Resolved, never to do anything, which I should be afraid to do if it were the last hour of my life.

"Resolved, to think much, on all occasions, of my own dying, and of the common circumstances which attend death."

And what young man would also vow to himself that these, and similar resolutions, he would read over once a week? I am sure that the young men of today *will* what Jonathan Edwards *willed*, and will it quite as strongly as he willed it, but they do not express their volitions; and furthermore, their volitions are rather volitions than emotions. One of the young men of whom I asked the question says, "My purpose, first, last and all the time, is to develop such a character as God can bless, and to develop the power which is given me." This is, I think, the essence of what Jonathan Edwards meant in his manifold resolutions; and this is the prevailing, though seldom expressed, purpose of thousands of students in our colleges.

Be it therefore said at once, affirmatively and positively, that these papers do strike certain fundamental notes of humanity. If

the religious note is not struck, the ethical note is clear and distinct. Let me cite from some of the replies. These students give as their reasons for being in college these considerations:

"That I may prepare myself to perform duties imposed with good judgment and in an efficient way;" "that by study and preparation I may best do my duty to my Master and fulfil the obligations of citizenship;" "to obtain something like completeness of life;" "that I may develop character;" "that I may leave the institution more competent for the duties of life and more capable of resisting the temptations of life;" and "to develop such a character as God can bless."

It is also to be said that this ethical note is more constant and more emphatic in the papers of the men than of the women. Perhaps the reason is that with women the ethical note is so fundamental that it needs no expression. It is assumed in all their discussion.

A second characteristic of these papers, which is more characteristic of the papers of the women than of those of the men, is the purpose of securing an education. This purpose may be called by the one word of "culture," or by the Latin word *humanitas* or the Greek word *paideia* (*παιδεία*). It may be interpreted by such phrases as "breadth," "knowledge," or "learning;" but, under many forms of expression, both women and men declare that it is their purpose to gain a liberal education. This purpose is expressed in these ways:

"To obtain a broader education;" "for the purpose of a higher education;" "in order to understand the origin and growth of the race and of man;" "because of a desire to reap the benefits of a higher education;" "that I may obtain what is considered a good edu-

cation in all things except what is practical;" "because here are offered the greatest opportunities for that broader and higher development which it should be the wish of all to obtain;" and "that I may have a broader education than I could have in the high school. When we are old enough to think for ourselves we are responsible for making the most of ourselves. College life is considered to be broadening."

The men are on the whole more definite than the women in the expression of their purposes. I will not say that they are more practical, but I will say that they are more precise. Here are some of the replies from the men which are of general significance:

"To improve the mind and body; to see and learn more of the world; to meet with men of brain and genius; and to learn more of social life;" "for the purpose of broadening my knowledge, to prepare myself for taking up a profession, to make myself at ease when speaking before others, to cultivate a taste for reading;" "the aim of the state is to stimulate us toward good citizenship, and above all I want to become and to be a good citizen, and as good as education can give;" "for the purpose of getting a solid foundation for my after-work;" and "to learn to think, to become cultured and to increase my knowledge is my desire."

Be it said, moreover, that these papers indicate wholesomeness, healthfulness and happiness on the part of all the writers. These writings are free from self-consciousness, morbidness, and of course from bitterness of every sort. They are "sweetness and light." These papers, written by Freshmen, indicate that the better homes of "the third estate" are sending boys and girls of sound minds and hearts to the colleges. Let us, college officers, pray that we may, as one boy says, "be able to turn the boy into the man."

THE SWORDS.

Sakim the sage, the shaper of wise song,
At eventide sang to the listening throng,—
"In the thick press of life two swords there be
For every man, the blades of Right and Wrong."

Soul, set thy hand on Right's emblazoned hilt,
And thou mayst smite as fiercely as thou wilt!
But if, in folly, thou shouldst wield the Wrong,
'Twill turn upon thee, and thy blood be spilt!

—Clinton Scollard.

THE CHAUTAUQUA BOYS' CLUB.

BY JAMES A. BABBITT, M. D.



WO hundred and fifty wide-awake, restless American boys, from eight to sixteen years of age, suddenly turned loose for at least ten long weeks of summer days! What are we going to do with them? Some are good, some are moderately bad; some are strong, others weak; some are earnest, many are indifferent—yet all are active, and how can we best provide an instructive and profitable yet recreative and health-giving summer?

At Chautauqua we answer this in part by the advice, "Place them in the Boys' Club;" and it shall be the effort of the writer to convey to the readers of THE CHAUTAUQUAN, many of whom may be strangers to the real spirit and institutions of Chautauqua, an imperfect picture of the work of this club.

It is difficult for one absorbed heart and soul in every phase of the Boys' Club work and vitally interested in everything which relates to the development of the juvenile Chautauqua idea, to determine what will most appeal to these readers, but he believes he will accomplish most by firmly resisting the temptation to give a mere rambling sketch of some popular phase of club life, and answering briefly here a few of the many questions which assail him on every side during the busy summer season.

These queries will come somewhat as follows:

What is the foundation and purpose of the club?

How much of permanent value do the boys obtain from the course?

How much religious instruction is incorporated in the club program?

What is the key-note for holding attention during club meetings?

Is not boating, bathing, swimming and camping *en masse* dangerous?

Where is the dividing line between work and recreation?

How is interest in club work maintained?

Would you associate boys and girls in such work?

How far would you advise leaving boys to their own resources?

Please outline a typical boy's reading course.

How can I carry the Chautauqua idea to my own home?

What is the best costume for an active boy during the summer?

How can nature study be best conducted and in how large sections?

In our limited space it will be impossible

to answer all these and the many other questions of a like nature which will be suggested, and it may be well to group the replies under the following general heads:

1. The history, foundation and purpose of the club.
2. Suggestions for summer instruction.
3. The boy's recreation—its liberty and limitations.
4. A typical day's program during the Chautauqua session.

1. That the club is not an ancient one will be readily seen when we note that the year 1893 saw its origin in the work of a group of five small boys under the charge of one of the present directors. These lads were enthusiastic nature students, performed a limited amount of practical school work during the summer, were eager for every form of gymnastic and athletic exercise, and furnished abundant incentive for the initial organization of the Chautauqua Boys' Club.

In the normal course of evolution there came an early demand for departmental division according to age and ability, and this has culminated in the beautiful new club building erected by the generosity of Chautauqua friends in the spring of 1899. Besides the business office, the building contains a large assembly and gymnastic hall, reading room and library, bathing and locker rooms, manual-training quarters, and a natural science department. Although the two latter, both as to equipment and course, are still in their infancy, the progress of the club work has been so rapid and the possibilities of future development seem so grand and far-reaching as to fairly alarm its founders.

As the present outline of work, general equipment and surroundings have come simply as a natural process of growth and in response to necessity, our readers will see the difficulty in stating a definite plan of organization or, indeed, of adapting this to any local form of work such as the Y. M. C. A. cadets, boys' brigade, church and college settlement systems, etc.

Even among the summer clubs and camps the Chautauqua club is unique. A natural science camp is appropriate to Canandaigua; a mountain camp to the Adirondacks; a fishing or hunting camp on Long Island Sound

or Lake Winnepesaukee has its enthusiastic votaries; but a Chautauqua boys' club, combining so many of these departments in its system, could hardly exist save at a Chautauqua. And why? Simply because it is identical with Chautauqua, is an outgrowth of the Chautauqua idea, adapts Chautauqua courses, round tables, lectures and entertainments to the Chautauqua boy, and, perhaps we may add, preaches Chautauqua ethics and inculcates her spirit in the future guardian of her interests.

2. In outlining an appropriate form of summer instruction, it has been found very practicable to arrange things around three centers: Manual training in some of its varied forms; nature study (including observation classes and excursions); and a practical form of summer physiology, anatomy and hygiene. The latter is especially applicable to the developing nature of summer athletic work, and is also appropriate to summer emergencies.

In the term manual training should here be broadly included, Swedish sloyd, whittling courses (kites, canes and whistles), basket weaving, bent-iron work and canoe building. The writer also favors simple carpentry, with some definite local object in view, such as the building of bicycle racks, board walks or boat docks.

How many of us live in regret that we were never taught the rudiments of natural science! This almost universal deficiency the club hopes at some time to fully meet, and is already meeting in an embryonic way. Frequent excursions are taken into the woods, boys are taught the characteristics of fungous growths, learn for themselves the notes of our American song-birds, and acquire the names of trees and flowers. A temporary summer "live" museum of turtles, snakes and fish has already been attempted, and another year will see the foundation of a permanent natural science museum especially appertaining to Chautauqua. Anatomy and physiology with question-box talks and including the simple emergency treatment for drowning and other summer accidents, has been found very entertaining. Instructive talks upon simple muscular development are incident to the course in gymnastic drill.

Perhaps we may be allowed to answer here the question as to religious instruction in the club. Instead of incorporating regular Bible study in the club course, and possibly defeating its object thereby, the directors meet this deficiency by maintaining a series

of so-called "Christian ethics meetings." These are held upon Sunday afternoons, and are conducted upon typical boys' club lines—short crisp talks by the best Chautauqua speakers, bright music, conducted with a snap and swing—and all informal and free. Such meetings are attended by boys customarily absent from Sunday-school and whom it is most necessary for us to reach. The topics selected for such talks are of this character: Courage, True Nobility, Valor, Strength, Honor, Purity, Manliness, etc. An appeal made to the boys in this way rarely misses its mark, and these ethical meetings, together with frequent personal talks during the week's work, constitute the most powerful moral influences of the club.

3. There is no more important function of club management than that of determining the proper amount of recreation desirable for an active boy of ten or twelve and assuming the proper guidance of this in its moral, mental and physical relations. It has seemed wise to prescribe a large amount of healthy physical activity during the summer session, and, more than this, the larger part of summer work at Chautauqua should be entered upon the category of recreative incident. Obviously this would be wise only when a reasonable amount of direct profit is attained as well, but it has been proved that body building and callisthenic drill can be made as truly recreative as a game of baseball, though it must be admitted that the enthusiasm of numbers has much to do in the accomplishment of this result.

Swimming, rowing, camping—every form of exercise, from tether-ball to French cricket—are called upon to supplement this gymnastic development, and the Chautauqua boy is physically tired (not exhausted) by nightfall, and generally ready for a seasonable bed hour.

The element of danger in swimming, camping, heavy gymnastics and other forms of athletics is met squarely, though every sensible surrounding safeguard is provided. Never in the history of the club has a really serious accident occurred, though parents have often refused to enter their boys on account of the vigorous and apparently dangerous nature of its work.

The question is suggested here: "Why does the boy enjoy the club?" He enjoys it partly because he is as keenly appreciative of club privileges as is his father, and his club, for the time being, is a second home.

The club talks are his talks, and he will keep his seat under a pretty stiff lecture upon that account. He gives his club yell until his young throat is hoarse and parched, and every time he does this his breast swells with the sense of proprietorship. He has a lark every time he goes to camp. His feet are wet, probably his clothing is damp, too; his potatoes are poorly cooked (by himself); his bed is hard and his sleep is broken, but what cares he? He is a Chautauqua boy and glad of it, and his hand goes up first for the privilege of going again.

Note those sixty boys on the top of an abbreviated load of hay, off to Prendergast Point for a swim. This picture will answer in part the question as to the association of the sexes in club work and settle the question of summer costume. The boy is here rubbing off his sharp corners in free competitive association with other lads of his own age and ability.

4. In closing, let us give you a typical day's program of club work, one selected at random, and we will endeavor to cover a full day for a busy Chautauqua lad:

8:30 A. M.—Chautauqua bells call boys and girls together for chorus drill in the C. L. S. C. building. Open free to all club members.

9:00—Boys' and girls' chapel for brief Bible study in Children's Temple.

9:30—General meeting at Boys' Club grounds. This is a general athletic hour, a sort of collecting period, with athletics of all kinds, until the full company is assembled for club exercises. Several teams are practising baseball. Three groups are surrounding the tether poles, footballs fly through the air, some of the smallest boys are busily damming up the little stream which flows by the building, while perhaps one company of twenty-five is of on a natural science tramp; fifteen or twenty are

busy at French cricket, and the entire company is ready and eager for club work to begin.

10:00—Club session in the building opens, all pouring in at the sound of the horn. Boys talk, laugh, shout and whistle *ad libitum* till at the magic signal of the leader's raised hand quiet is instantly restored. After perhaps a preliminary organization meeting on this day, selection of campers for the night, the giving of various announcements, etc., the club is divided into several sections. One withdraws to the carpentry room; another takes up basket-weaving; a third, perhaps of the smaller boys this time, forms a reading circle in the woods near by; a fourth goes to archery practise, etc. Soon they are all called back to the club, and for a final period on this day Rogers's band may give them a private entertainment.

11:00—Special swimming for boys learning to swim, or directed by parents to go in under charge of swimming-master. This morning period is limited to about twenty minutes on the swimming ground, and boys must leave the water at the call of the horn. Those not swimming have been perhaps continuing some other club work under charge of one of the assistants. The club now adjourns until afternoon.

1:00 P. M.—Older boys' baseball practise. This is the practise for the second Chautauqua baseball team composed of older members, and is in preparation for regularly scheduled games with some of the surrounding country clubs.

2:00—Junior gymnastic period. The younger half of the club reports for gymnastic work at this hour, which consists of callisthenic and body building drill, followed by heavy apparatus work and gymnastic games under an appropriate instructor. Professor Anderson has remarkable success in maintaining the interest in this systematic course.

2:45—Senior gymnastic sections report for gymnastic work of a more advanced character. While gymnastic work is in progress, private physical examinations are conducted for members of the free section.

3:30—This is the hour of general swimming, and boys enter and leave the water at their own will, using the dressing rooms in the club building.

5:00—Camping section of ten boys leaves for the other side of the lake under charge of the camp master, and this concludes another busy day for the Chautauqua boy.

TO A LIVE-OAK.

My forest Atlas, lifting to the sky
A beauteous world of frail, dependent life,—
Along the reaches of thy mighty arms
Soft friezes of the resurrection fern,
And wind-blown draperies of filmy moss,
Gray, eerie, exquisite; thy massive trunk
Broidered with lichens, starred with delicate vines
That cling for sanctuary to thy strength;
And far above, thine own plain, faithful leaves!
Under thy vast benignity I stand,
O new-found friend, and in thy murmurs hear
Voices of ancient friendship quering sweet.

—Marion Pelton Guild.

The RIVALRY of NATIONS

WORLD POLITICS OF TODAY

By Edwin A. Start

[Chapters I.-IV. appeared in the October issue. The first was an introductory discussion of the significance of the present age, the expansion of the nations, the industrial revolution, the growth of democracy, and the world problems resulting from the interplay of these elements. Chapter II. explained the politics of Europe in the middle of the century, as turning upon the ideas of nationality and the revolutionary democracy; with the Eastern question as shaped in the Crimean war. In Chapters III. and IV. the development of England and France respectively in the last half century were traced, with especial reference to the rise of English democracy and the growth of republican government in France.]

Summary of Preceding Chapters.

CHAPTER V.

THE NEW GERMANY.

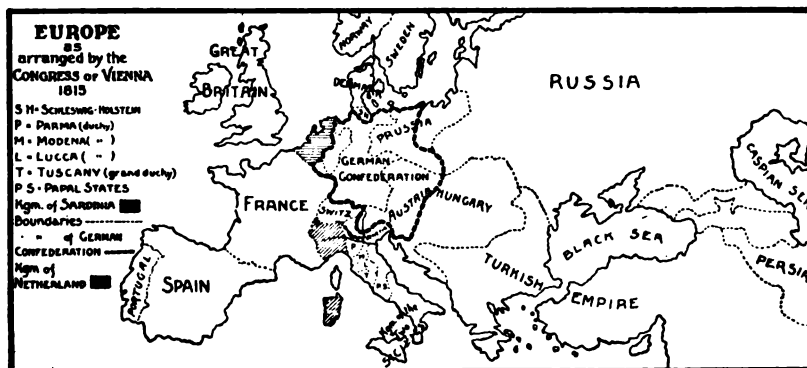
Required Reading for the Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle.

HELD closely by political mortmain in the grasp of the medieval theory of world-empire and world-church, disunited by ancient feudal and race divisions, controlled latterly by the imperial house of Austria, whose possessions lay between them, and whose influence depended upon the suppression of national life in the domains that she controlled, Germany and Italy failed to achieve that national unity which made the strength of the western European nations. Instead, they developed internal rivalries that were fatal to national life. In the Germanic body, but not of it, Austria fostered these rivalries that she might rule.

Germany and the medieval empire.

In North Germany there had developed from the old Mark Brandenburg a military state which, as the kingdom of Prussia, aspired to German leadership, and under Frederick the Great had become the open rival of Austria. Beaten down by Napoleon, it had gone through a terrible ordeal of humiliation, struggled to its feet, played a leading part in the overthrow of its conqueror, and since the Congress of Vienna had been reckoned with as one of the great powers. It was necessary for German unity that such a state, with a definite policy, should assume the leadership, bring order, by force if necessary, out of the Germanic chaos, and stand unqualifiedly for German nationality. This Prussia had made efforts to do, but they had been premature. Its task had been somewhat simplified by the consolidation of the smaller states of Germany under the Napoleonic régime. The Congress of Vienna had brought into existence the Germanic Confederation, a loosely organized confederate body, with

The growth of Prussia.



EUROPE AS ARRANGED BY THE CONGRESS OF VIENNA.

Work of the Congress of Vienna, 1815.

a diet composed of ambassadors of the several states, who treated with each other in accordance with instructions from their several governments. It could declare war and make peace, but had no administrative machinery. It was a government that could not govern; a legislature whose laws had no sanction. Austria held the permanent presidency and Prussia the vice-presidency. Before the middle of the century the



BISMARCK IN THE
FEDERAL COUNCIL.
(From the painting of
A. von Werner.)

inefficiency of this body had brought its decrees into contempt. It was a field for diplomatic intrigue, and little more. The liberal party that stood for German nationality had labored to secure a true national parliament, but it failed to take into account the necessity of an entire reorganization of the confederate body before such a change could be of avail. The national assembly at Frankfurt in 1848-1849 was a lamentable failure. Any such movement must have the leadership of a strong state, capable of enforcing its will, with the government in the hands of a prince fully con-

sconscious of his aims, for in Germany even yet the power of the people is limited to indirect pressure. The princes are the actual sources of authority, as they have always been.

Prussia's time of
weakness,
(1840-1861.)

The only state capable of such leadership was Prussia, but in the middle of the century Prussia lacked a strong head with a policy, and a will to carry it out. The reign of Frederick William IV., though filled with opportunity, was singularly futile. It saw the revolutionary movements of 1848, the passionate burst of German nationalism, the effort to bring about German unity under Prussian leadership. But through it all Prussia was herself in the leading-strings of Austria, and guided by policies of a passing generation. The movements ended apparently in nothing, and the old policy of reaction set in.

William I.

All this was changed when the king's brother, William, came into power, as regent in 1858, as king in 1861. William was no radical. Indeed, while crown prince it had been advisable for him to leave the kingdom for a time because of the dislike felt for him by the parliamentary liberals. He was identified with the military and monarchical party, a conservative, attached to the traditions of his house and tenacious of its prerogatives; but he was a lover of his people, honest and cool-headed, and a sincere German nationalist; not a brilliant ruler, but a safe one. Two years after his accession to the throne William called to the head of the ministry a Prussian gentleman whose personality had already made itself felt in German politics — Herr von Bismarck, afterward count

and prince. The king at first had doubts of Bismarck, but the latter came to his assistance when the king was almost on the point of abdication because of bitter opposition by the liberal majority in the *Landtag*. Bismarck was willing to accept the responsibility of governing without a parliamentary majority and without a budget. This alliance continued throughout the life of the king, and these two men complemented each other well. Both belonged to the race of strong men; but the king, while a soldier by taste and training, was inclined to peace rather than war, and the kindly element in his character made him often willing to yield what he did not regard as essentials, in order to avoid strife. His great minister was alert, combative, ruthless; framing a policy and pursuing it without a shadow of turning; a man of one idea — the consolidation of German nationality — but of infinite resource in attaining its realization. King William had already entered upon the task of strengthening and reorganizing the army. Here he had met the opposition of the liberal

Bismarck.



WHERE LAWS ARE
MADE FOR GERMANY.
THE HALL OF THE
REICHSTAG, BERLIN.

party, but his course had Bismarck's hearty support. Prussia was necessarily a military monarchy. Blessed with no natural advantages, it had actually fought its way to power, and ordeals yet awaited it before it could lead Germany into the Promised Land. Against the might of armies controlled by despotism and the machinations of diplomats bent on preserving the old régime, resolutions of assemblies and appeals of associations were powerless. It was this that Bismarck declared in his famous speech to the Budget Commission of the Prussian *Landtag* on the 30th of September, 1862, just after he took office. In this speech occurred that striking passage which condensed in its terse language so much of the German history of two centuries:

The policy of blood
and iron.

"Our blood is too hot, we are fond of bearing an armor too large for our small body; now let us utilize it. Germany does not look at Prussia's liberalism, but at its power. Let Bavaria, Württemberg, Baden, indulge in liberalism, yet no one will assign to them the rôle of Prussia. Prussia must consolidate its might and hold it together for the favorable moment, which has been allowed to pass unheeded several times. Prussia's boundaries, as determined by the Congress of Vienna, are not conducive to its wholesome existence as a sovereign state. Not by speeches and resolutions of majorities the mighty problems of the age are solved — that was the mistake of 1848 and 1849¹ — but by blood and iron."²



¹ Referring to the abortive schemes for German unity in those years.

² Translated from "*Die politischen Reden des Fürsten Bismarck*," Vol. II.

For the attainment of Germany unity under Prussian leadership, — for he had no confidence in its practicability through any other means, — Bismarck shaped a policy of remarkable definiteness and carried it out with mathematical exactness, evincing his power both to plan and execute. His task involved four steps: (1) The removal of Austria, as a state non-German and non-national, from the confederation; (2) the acceptance by the other German states of the leadership of Prussia; (3) the political unification of Germany; (4) the development of the new Germany thus formed into a strong national state. The first two were accomplished by involving



A GERMAN MARKET PLACE, MUNICH.

Austria in the troublesome Schleswig-Holstein affair,³ engendering disputes in the confederation; and by bringing on an armed conflict with Austria, the Seven Weeks' war, in which Austria was humiliated and the confederation reorganized by the North German states

under the Prussian presidency; the third was promoted by the fatuous policy of the war party in France, which assisted the schemes of Bismarck; and the fourth is embodied in the history of the German empire since 1870.

The Schleswig-Holstein affair.

Led on by Bismarck to joint action with Prussia in defense of the treaty of 1852, Austria was drawn farther into the net until Denmark was invaded and occupied and the treaty had been made waste paper. The confederation had joined in the defense of Holstein, but the attack upon Denmark by Prussia and Austria caused an outburst of indignant anger from the rest of Germany, and the Prussian chambers refused to vote the government loan. But no European power raised its hand, and the King of Denmark was forced to renounce his rights in Schleswig, Holstein, and Lauenburg in favor of the Emperor of Austria and the King of Prussia, who assumed jointly the administration of the duchies. Prussia took charge of Schleswig, and Austria of Holstein. This last arrangement was completed by the convention of Gastein between Austria and Prussia. This convention also conveyed Lauenburg to Prussia for two and a half million rix-dollars. There was intense dissatisfaction in the confederation

Treaty of Gastein, August 14, 1865.



³Schleswig, Holstein and Lauenburg were duchies occupying the neck of the Danish peninsula. Their population was German, save for a large Danish contingent in Schleswig. Holstein was a member of the German Confederation. By a train of events beginning in the fourteenth century they had come into possession of the royal house of Denmark, but had steadily resisted incorporation into the Danish kingdom. This had been urged by the ultra-patriotic national party in the Danish parliament, and after 1844 this party, known as the Eider-Danes, demanded that the frontier be fixed at the Eider, the southern boundary of Schleswig. This was embodied in the Danish constitution of 1863, which was accepted by Christian IX., who succeeded to the throne of Denmark in that year. Christian's title had been recognized by the London conference of the powers, which had also guaranteed the integrity of Denmark and that the rights of the duchies should be respected. Nevertheless, not only was this attempt made to absorb Schleswig, but the Danes also tried to force upon Holstein a charter in defiance of the protests of its people. The arrogant course of Denmark, which counted on the preoccupation of the powers at this time, gave Bismarck his opportunity for interference. Meanwhile, the Prince of Augustenburg had set up a claim to the duchies as heir in the male line, while Christian's claim was through the female line, which was not recognized in the duchies.

because of the arbitrary nature of these arrangements, but Bismarck, looking into the future, saw the duchies a part of the new Germany he had undertaken to create, and the port of Kiel in Holstein a great naval depot and the Baltic terminus of the already projected canal to the North Sea. He demanded the entrance of the duchies into the *Zollverein*⁴ and their practical control by Prussia.

After the convention of Gastein, Bismarck took measures to secure the non-interference of France with Prussian plans, and made advances for an Italian alliance, knowing full well that a struggle with Austria was at hand. The joint administration of the duchies produced continual friction. Austria had little interest in Holstein, and did not put the check upon agitation in favor of the Danes and of the Prince of Augustenburg that Bismarck considered necessary. In January, 1866, a sharp correspondence on the subject was interchanged between the two governments. Italy's suspicion of Prussia's good faith was meanwhile set at rest; a commercial alliance with the German *Zollverein* had paved the way for a political alliance with the leading state of the *Zollverein*, and this was accomplished on the 8th of April. By this treaty Italy was to declare war on Austria when the King of Prussia failed to obtain the approval of the confederate governments to certain reforms of the constitution that were essential to the welfare of the German nation. Thus the mask was thrown aside and the larger, better purpose in Bismarck's scheme was disclosed. The war was not to be over the petty affairs of three insignificant duchies; it was to be a German national struggle.

The Italian alliance.

Prussia had already in 1863 begun to press in the diet plans for a national parliament based on popular suffrage. In pursuance of this policy and of the proposition embodied in the Italian treaty, Bismarck now introduced in the diet a motion for the establishment of a national parliament with considerable powers. His sincerity was doubted throughout Europe, the motion seemed so inconsistent with his previous political methods. Austria now made a test issue of the Schleswig-Holstein dispute, threatening to refer it to the diet and obtain an expression from the Holstein estates. Bismarck declared that this action would be a direct violation of the convention of Gastein, and asserted Prussia's right under that convention to a voice in the administration of Holstein; and Prussia immediately placed on a war footing her whole army which had been thoroughly prepared for this contingency. Italy did the same. Napoleon III. made some efforts to withdraw Italy, and to settle the controversy by a congress, but Austria's obstinacy prevented any result from these efforts, and all unprepared she was precipitated by the ultramontane clericals and the war party into a fatal conflict.

Forcing Austria's position.

On the 1st of June, Austria referred the Holstein question to the diet; on the 9th the Prussian administrator of Schleswig occupied Holstein; on the 10th Bismarck addressed a circular letter to the German courts announcing Prussia's policy; on the 11th Austria moved in the diet the mobilization of the federal army for federal execution upon Prussia, and diplomatic relations between the two chief states of the confederation were at once broken off. The vote on Austria's motion, taken January 14, was a tie as the states voted, but was decided in Austria's favor. Prussia's representative at once laid before the diet an outline of the new national organization proposed by his state, in the name of the King of Prussia declared the confederation dissolved, and withdrew. Prussia at once ordered the disarmament of Hanover, Hesse Cassel, and Saxony; on the 16th invited all the smaller North German states to join with Prussia in German reorganization; and promptly invaded the states that had joined Austria.

War begins.



⁴ German customs union instituted by Prussia in 1818 and used as the rallying point for closer political union. Austria had always been excluded because of non-German interests.

**THE CAPTURE OF
NAPOLEON III. AT
SEDAN.**

(From the painting by
Camphausen.)



Prussia's swift
success.

The campaign was a surprise to Europe, which did not realize how complete had been Prussia's military preparations. Within ten days Saxony, Hanover, and Hesse Cassel had been occupied, and the invasion of Bohemia had begun. On the 3rd of July at Königgratz and Sadowa Austria sustained a crushing defeat, and hastened to arrange an armistice preliminary to peace, without regard to its South German allies, which were dealt with by another Prussian column. The triumph of Prussia was so complete that it made little difference in the result that Italy had been defeated on land and sea.

Peace of Prague.

The peace of Prague, between Prussia and Austria, accepted the dissolution of the old confederation, which Prussia had declared, and permitted a reorganization without Austria. Austria ceded her rights in Schleswig-Holstein, paid a war indemnity of fifteen million dollars, and ceded Venetia to Italy. Schleswig-Holstein, Hanover, Electoral Hesse, Nassau, and Frankfurt were incorporated into Prussia, which thus added twenty-nine thousand square miles to its territory, and four and one-half million people to its population. With Würtemberg, Baden, Bavaria, Hesse and Saxony Prussia negotiated separate treaties, which included an offensive and defensive alliance, reciprocal guaranties of territorial integrity, and the acceptance of Prussian military leadership in case of war. The first diet of the North German Confederation met on the 24th of February, 1867, and accepted a constitution. Bavaria, Würtemberg, and Baden were not in this confederation.

Bismarck's larger
plans.

The triumph over Austria secured for Prussia the undisputed leadership in the new Germany; but Bismarck's plan included for this united Germany, which must embrace the South German states as well, a leadership in Europe which was yet to be won. The French empire still claimed that eminence. The hollowness of its pretensions must be shown. This completion of German unity involved also a rectification of Germany's western frontier, which was sure to bring on armed conflict with France. On this struggle Bismarck counted with the same mathematical exactness with which he had determined on the Danish and Austrian wars. The anti-Prussian war party that continually urged the French emperor against his will to act against Prussia, played into Bismarck's hand. France sought territorial compensation for Prussia's great gains, and endeavored to obtain the grand duchy of Luxemburg; but Prussia objected, whereupon France demanded the removal of the Prussian garrison from Luxemburg. War was prevented by the London conference, which decreed the neutralization of Luxemburg. Again, in 1869, Prussia refused to consent to the annexation of Belgium by France. France now began to look for

The rivalry of
France.



CHARGE OF DRAGOONS AT GRAVELOTTE.
(From the painting by A. de Neuville.)

allies, and a triple alliance of France, Austria, and Italy was actually talked of at Vienna and Paris. But the spark that fired the train came from an unexpected quarter. Spain, just passing through a revolution in 1868, was searching for a king, and invited the heir of one of the branches of the House of Hohenzollern to accept the crown. The offer was refused, but in the summer of 1870 the matter was reopened by Bismarck, and with the consent of King William, as head of the house, Prince Leopold accepted the Spanish offer. This aroused a storm in France, but the matter would have been satisfactorily settled had it not been for the unwisdom and lack of tact in the French protest. King William's attitude was that of a peacemaker, willing to withdraw his consent if his kinsman's candidacy was offensive to France. When, however, the French minister, Grammont, asked for a letter which would have been practically an apology to the French nation, William, crowded too hard by the rampant diplomacy of Paris, turned the matter over to Bismarck, who immediately made public some facts, judiciously selected, which roused the national feeling of Germany. Paris took notice of utterances in the German press as if they had come through official channels, and declared war on the 19th of July. Of the results of this war for France something has been said in the preceding chapter. Napoleon had counted on entering Germany, securing the assistance of the South German states because of their old hostility toward Prussia, and being joined by Austria. Instead, France fought on the defensive and without friends, the South German states loyally abided by their recent treaties with Prussia, and the culmination came in that historic scene in the Galerie de Glaces of Versailles, when amid the waving banners of every regiment of the German army then besieging Paris, surrounded by a brilliant assemblage of officers and statesmen, who assumed to represent the German people, William accepted from the princes of North and South Germany the title German emperor, and the new German empire was born. On the 16th of April the emperor promulgated the text of the imperial constitution.

The affair of the Spanish crown.

War.

The German empire.

This constitution is more than that of a mere confederation, but it does not represent a perfect federal state. The executive is hereditary in the reigning family of Prussia. The legislature is bicameral—the upper house, *Bundesrath* or federal council, being a development of the old diet, and a concession to German confederatism. The members are appointed by the executives of the several states, and vote as a unit according to instructions. Prussia has seventeen votes, sufficient to defeat any

The imperial constitution.

measure that can be construed as amending the constitution.* As the *Bundesrath* has full concurrent powers of legislation with the *Reichstag*, and some special powers, it will be seen that Germany has not yet reached a true democratic system. The lower house, the *Reichstag*, is composed of representatives elected by practically universal suffrage, one to every one hundred thousand of the population. There is no responsible ministry, and hence no strong party organization. The German people have a means of making their will felt, but they cannot directly control the government. Bismarck's progress toward liberalism never carried him to a faith in popular majorities or a belief in the wisdom of control by a parliamentary majority, for which he had a rooted antipathy. Under this constitution a large measure of sovereignty runs back to the emperor in last resort. And this power of the emperor is increased by the fact that Germany is a military state, born on the field of battle, upheld by force of arms. And yet Germany is a true national state in the making, passing now through the stage of partial confederatism. It is also a national democracy in the making, passing now through the stage of a democratic monarchy.

The *Kulturkampf*.

For six years after the formation of the empire, Bismarck was engaged in his strife with the clerical party, which is known by the Germans as the *Kulturkampf*, or war for civilization. Beginning in a just effort to secure the fullest freedom of faith and non-interference by the hierarchy with education, the struggle grew in proportions until Bismarck and the pope were pitted against each other. Then the Iron Chancellor made his mistake. He carried matters too far, had severe restrictive legislation passed against the refractory clergy, and aroused an opposition too strong even for him. He was obliged to make compromises, and finally abandoned the field.

Bismarck and the socialists.

In 1878 he turned upon the socialists, who had become an effective political force. Special laws were passed under which, until 1890, any portion of the country could be placed "in a minor state of siege," which meant practically military control. The twelve years of repression destroyed the social democratic organization. In return Bismarck pushed legislation for the benefit of the working classes, such as compulsory state insurance, for which he has been claimed as a state socialist.

Accession of William II.

Bismarck's conservative tendencies broke up the national liberal party, which had hitherto been his main support, and gave rise in 1884 to the radical or *Freisinnige* party. The colonial policy entered upon in the early eighties intensified the opposition, but in 1888 Bismarck had succeeded in bringing about a favorable patriotic coalition on the army bill, in the face of possible war with France. At this juncture the emperor died, and was succeeded by his son, Frederick, who reigned but three months. The present emperor, William II., succeeded to the royal crown of Prussia and the imperial crown of Germany on the 15th of June, 1888.

The character of the emperor.

The character of the new emperor is a singular mingling of the medieval and the modern, but in the main he represents the ideas of the eighteenth century, so far as his views of his own office are concerned. He is the embodiment of the monarchical, ecclesiastical, and military idea which had always been strong in eastern Germany, and has opposed the democratic, anti-clerical, industrial society that has developed in western Germany. The apparent confusion in German politics is due to the fact that Prussia, the representative eastern Germanic power, thoroughly monarchical in its constitution, has found its allies in the fight for German



The apportionment of votes in the *Bundesrath* is as follows: Prussia, 17; Bavaria, 6; Saxony, 4; Württemberg, 4; Baden, 3; Hesse, 3; Mecklenburg-Schwerin, 2; Brunswick, 2; and one each to Saxe-Weimar, Mecklenburg-Strelitz, Oldenburg, Saxe-Meiningen, Saxe-Altenburg, Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, Anhalt, Schwarzburg-Sonderhausen, Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt, Waldeck, Reuss, elder and younger line, Schaumburg-Lippe, Lippe, Lübeck, Bremen, Hamburg. Alsace-Lorraine is governed as an imperial territory.

unity among the more democratic western states. Emperor William II. regards himself as a monarch by divine right quite as sincerely as did any Bourbon or Stuart, though his warrant for holding the imperial office is the constitution of the German empire with its popular basis. Between this erratic and autocratic young ruler and the veteran statesman who had hitherto guided German affairs there could be little sympathy. In 1890 Bismarck was dismissed from office. The course of the young emperor was at first favorable to the social democracy, and that party revived and has become a positive factor in German politics during the last decade. Owing to the peculiar alignment of parties in Germany the social democracy has become the rallying point for most of the liberal sections, and this accounts for its exceptional strength. Of late the personal ideas and characteristics of the emperor have impressed themselves strongly on German policy. The present ideal of the emperor seems to be colonial expansion and commercial development. Germany has made a great industrial advance since the organization of the empire, and now stands second only to England in industry and commerce.

Retirement of
Bismarck.

Development of the
new Germany.

CHAPTER VI.

UNITED ITALY.

"Italy is a geographical expression," Metternich had said with truth to the European powers. From the time of the Germanic invasion, Italy had been the victim of conquerors and of the seeds of civic disease sown in it by Roman imperialism. German and Byzantine, Norman and Saracen, Spaniard, Frenchman and Austrian, by turns or together, made the peninsula, whose proud people had ruled the world, the sport of their policies. From the days of Hapsburg supremacy in the Holy Roman empire, Austria had been a dominant force in the peninsula, and Austrian control was firmly fixed in the years of reaction after the Congress of Vienna. The territory properly belonging to Italy comprised the kingdom of Sardinia, whose chief mainland possession was Piedmont; the provinces of Lombardy and Venetia, which were held under the sovereignty of Austria; the grand duchy of Tuscany, and the duchies of Parma and Modena; the states of the church under the sovereignty of the pope; and the kingdom of the Two Sicilies, embracing Naples and Sicily. Austrian influence was dominant with the governments of all these states, except that of the Sardinian kingdom. From 1812 there had been a ferment of nationalism and liberalism, developed with all the fervor of a race passionate and intellectually acute, but lacking in the wisdom and self-control acquired by training in handling its own affairs. Diversity of language, thought and race emphasized the political features that stood in the way of national unity.

Political condition
of Italy before 1848.

The revolutionary year 1848 saw outbreaks in every Italian state—in the north for freedom from Austria, and everywhere for liberal constitutions. Charles Albert, king of Sardinia, accepted the leadership of the movement in northern Italy; but he was a dreamer, whose indecision at the most critical moments was fatal to the cause he supported. Entering without proper preparation upon a war with Austria that he did not know how to conduct, he met crushing defeat, the final blow being dealt at Novara on the 23rd of July, 1849. Discouraged, conscious of his own weakness, Charles Albert resigned the crown of Sardinia to his son, Victor Emmanuel II., and went into exile. The Austrian triumph at Novara extinguished every revolutionary movement in Italy, and Austrian troops

The struggle of
1848.

Victor Emmanuel II.



*The population which was forty-two million in 1875 had passed fifty-two million in 1895. In the same period the urban population had increased from thirty-six per cent of the whole to forty-seven per cent.

with incredible barbarities refastened the heavy yoke of the foreigner upon the country. The French, too, stepping in as defenders of the pope against the Roman republic, had obtained a foothold in the peninsula which it has been French policy since the time of Richelieu to keep in a subordinate position. No king ever assumed a heavier burden under gloomier conditions than did Victor Emmanuel in 1849. Not only was his

country almost bankrupt, forced to make terms with an exacting conqueror, and struggling with its own experiments in constitutional government, but he had to win from his own people the confidence that his father had lost to his house. Popular distrust met his first brave declarations of policy; local insurrections and annoying parliamentary opposition blocked his way, yet he took up the task of developing Italian nationalism and refused to deprive Piedmont of the constitutional liberties which then formed the hope of freedom in Italy. While standing on constitutional ground he did not, however, hesitate to use the executive authority to dissolve a parliament which by its policy of obstruction had "become impracticable,"¹ and to appeal to the people.



COUNT CAVOUR.

The very air of Italy was electrical with revolution, and brave men were ready to join in any uprising, however hopeless, but political wisdom was sadly lacking. The idealistic republicanism of Mazzini, the reckless, adventurous spirit of Garibaldi, claimed many followers. Had the wisdom of the Italians in this struggle equaled their courage and devotion, they might have built a state of wonderful power. But the conviction was gradually forced upon Italy and upon the friends of Italy in Europe, that the real hope of Italian unity lay not in a visionary republic, but in a close union with the kingdom of Sardinia, which alone maintained a constitutional government, and whose royal family showed a faithful intention of abiding by the constitution and of sacrificing something to the common good.

The new government began early the conflict with the papacy over its temporal powers in Italy, which the statesmanship of Cavour soon developed into the policy of "a free church in a free state." This earliest attack of the government at Turin upon the papal power in Italy won for it that bitter opposition which has so embarrassed the Italian kingdom in its later history. Cavour² entered the cabinet in 1850, as Minister of Agriculture and Commerce, and on the 19th of April, 1851, became Minister of Finance, no sinecure in the embarrassed little kingdom. The



¹ Royal proclamation of December, 1849.


² Count Camillo Benso di Cavour, born in Turin 1810. An artillery officer, dismissed for sympathy with the revolution of 1830, he retired to his Piedmont estates. He was one of the founders in 1847 of the *Risorgimento*, a liberal monarchical journal in Turin. He opposed radicalism, and entered the D'Azeglio Conservative ministry in 1850, but two years later took a somewhat more advanced position. He died in 1861.

Difficulties of the
new king.

accession to power of Cavour as head of the ministry in 1852 opened the constructive career of the new Italy. Cavour and Victor Emmanuel complemented each other in Italy as did Bismarck and William in Germany. In each case a king conservative but wise and patriotic, supported a minister of vigorous, aggressive, daring statesmanship. The task of reorganization to fit Sardinia for its mission was a varied one. It involved the increase of revenue, the negotiation of loans and of favorable treaties, the development of railways, the establishment of closer relations with the adjoining Italian states, and the securing of recognition of the kingdom as a European power. Behind all this must be a thorough reorganization of the army to give efficient support to the new pretensions. France, Austria and Prussia desired to check the reform tendency of the Turin government, and brought out a bit of rich sarcasm, which shows the spirit of the new king in striking contrast to the dreamy impracticability of his father. In a despatch to the Italian ministers in London and Paris, referring to the advice of Austria and Prussia, the

Cavour.



MAP OF ITALY, 1815-1870, TO ILLUSTRATE THE STRUGGLE FOR UNITY. [The kingdom of Sardinia is indicated thus . The dates indicate the year of union of the several states with Sardinia.]

king said: "His majesty has not been able to avoid replying with the observation that the political condition of the states ruled by the two sovereigns who have given him this intimation seems to him to indicate much more the need of advice than their right to offer it to others." The despatch closed with a distinct declaration that Sardinia could attend to its own affairs.

Cavour's daring move in joining France and England in the Crimean war was bitterly opposed by the Italian radicals. Its effect upon

Cavour's Crimean policy.

The need of allies.

The war of 1859.

Villafranca,
July 12, 1859.

Accession of central Italy.

The Sicilian revolt.

Sardinia's position in Europe has already been discussed.³ It gave the Sardinian army experience, won for the kingdom a position among European powers, and recognition, in spite of the protest of Austria, that the grievances of Italy were matters of interest to Europe.⁴ Cavour outlived the opposition that his audacious policy aroused, and became the hero and trusted leader of the state when that policy was crowned with triumph. He was able by his intellectual force, his devotion, and his untiring industry to hold the support of parliament, the confidence of the king, and the respect of European statesmen.

It was evident after Novara that Italy could not accomplish its liberation and unity alone, and Cavour's foreign policy was directed to securing the needed alliances. England always gave its moral support to Italy, but would not or could not involve itself in positive action. Sardinia's main hope, therefore, lay in the sympathy, policy or ambition of Napoleon III. After 1856 Cavour developed the situation toward a war with Austria, which should wrest from that country Lombardy and Venetia. Acting under a secret understanding with Napoleon, Cavour moved boldly. The other European powers, alarmed at the threat of war, endeavored to secure a congress, and that failing, to bring about disarmament; but Austria obstinately refused to disarm, and sent an ultimatum to Sardinia, demanding its disarmament. Sardinia refused to disarm in response to Austria's threat, and war was begun. France joined Sardinia, and the campaign of Magenta and Solferino demonstrated not so much the strength of the allies, as the weakness of their opponent. The rulers of Tuscany and the duchies were expelled by the people of those states, who gave their adhesion to the Italian cause, but on the 12th of July, 1859, at Villafranca, Napoleon III. entered into a treaty with Austria, which broke his faith with Italy, by whatever casuistry his course may be defended. Cavour indignantly resigned, but the king, cooler tempered, realizing how much depended upon moderation, accepted the situation and waited. The treaty of Zurich in November, 1859, between France, Austria, and Sardinia, gave Lombardy to Sardinia, but left Venetia in the hands of Austria. The rulers of Tuscany, Modena and Parma were restored, and the states of the peninsula, except Sardinia and the Two Sicilies, were to be formed into a confederation under the papal headship. This was not accepted by the people of central Italy, and their action soon made futile the deliberations of the congress. In 1860 Cavour returned to the head of the ministry. Napoleon had become favorable to the ideas of the central Italians, and by appealing to a plebiscite (the hobby of the French emperor) Cavour secured a popular verdict which united the people of the duchies and the legations to Sardinia. Austria and Naples protested, the pope excommunicated Victor Emmanuel and his subjects, but the decision of the people stood, and on the 2nd of April, 1860, a parliament opened at Turin representing a new Italy of twelve million people. France received Nice and Savoy as the reward for its assistance, although Napoleon had failed to keep his agreement to see Italy freed from the Alps to the Adriatic. Now began the revolt in Sicily, which resulted in bringing the Two Sicilies into the new Italian kingdom. Urged by Crispi and other Sicilian leaders, Garibaldi, the veteran revolutionary leader, went to Sicily with a body of volunteers, set up the standard of Italy,⁵ won the island, and crossing the

³ Chapter II. *supra*.

⁴ Cavour's declaration to the Congress of Paris explains the situation clearly: "Disturbed within by revolutionary activity, troubled abroad by a régime of violent repressions and foreign occupations, menaced by an increase of the influence of Austria, Piedmont may at a given moment be obliged to adopt extreme measures, of which it is almost impossible to foresee the consequences."

⁵ On the 14th of May, Garibaldi issued this proclamation from his headquarters at Salemi: "Garibaldi, commander-in-chief of the national forces in Sicily, on the invitation of the

straits invaded Naples. Cavour's position while this was going on was a difficult one. In deference to the laws of nations he discountenanced officially the action of Garibaldi, but secretly encouraged it, and gave orders to the Sardinian fleet to follow and watch, but not to interfere with Garibaldi's operations. When Garibaldi invaded Naples, action by Sardinia became necessary to prevent any consequence of his rashness. A movement on Naples involved the crossing of papal territory, against which protests were raised by all the powers except England, but Sardinia did not waver. The army moved rapidly, knowing that success would be its best excuse. The papal army was destroyed, the Neapolitan army was defeated, and on the 7th of November, 1860, Victor Emmanuel entered Naples, and received the allegiance of its people.

Garibaldi in the
Two Sicilies.



THE EMPEROR NA-
POLEON III. OF
FRANCE.

All Italy was now united under him, except Venetia and that part of the papal states immediately adjoining Rome. The first national parliament of northern and southern Italy met on the 18th of February, 1861. On the 6th of June, Cavour died — an irreparable loss to the new state that never needed him more than now. The Venetian and the Roman questions remained a constant trouble to the government. Young Italy was impatient over the delay in settling the Roman question, and Garibaldi's restless spirit led him to head several uprisings for the purpose of taking Rome. In 1867 he headed an attack upon the papal territory, which would probably have been successful but for the defense by France. The Garibaldian army was overwhelmed at Mentana, and Italian regard for France received a blow from which it was long in recovering. While discountenancing Garibaldi's lawless movement, Victor Emmanuel felt a sincere grief at the fate of his subjects, whose fault was their overzealous patriotism, and urged Napoleon to break with the French clericals at whose instigation he lent his support to the papal tyranny. In a letter to Napoleon, Victor Emmanuel said: "The late events have suffocated every remembrance of gratitude in the heart of Italy. It is no longer in the power of the government to maintain the alliance with France. The chassepot gun at Mentana has given it a mortal blow." Meanwhile the Venetian question had been settled by the alliance with Prussia, made on the 8th of April, 1866, when Bismarck was preparing to force Austria out of the Germanic body. The successes of Prussia, in spite of the defeats sustained by the Italian armies, enabled the former power to dictate the transference of Venetia through Napoleon III. to Italy. Again in 1870 Prussian successes secured what Italy had previously sought in vain. With the Franco-German war and the downfall of the French empire, the pope lost the support which had hitherto preserved his temporal sovereignty against the hopes of Italian nationality. In September the Italian army entered

Death of Cavour.

Mentana.

The territorial unity
of Italy.



principal citizens and on the deliberation of the free communes of the island, considering that in times of war it is necessary that the civil and military powers should be united in one person, assumes in the name of Victor Emmanuel, King of Italy, the dictatorship in Sicily."

WHERE LAWS ARE
MADE FOR ITALY.
THE CAPITOL,
ROME.



The problem of
uniting the people.

papal territory, in October the Roman people voted almost unanimously for annexation, and in July, 1871, the capital of Italy was established in Rome, and the territorial unification of the kingdom was complete.

It remained to organize the state and make a unit of its different peoples. In 1861 Massimo d'Azeglio had said: "We have united Italy, now let us unite the Italians." Indeed, the problems of the regenerated Italy were many. It was backward in its development, owing to years of repressive tyranny. The percentage of illiteracy was, and still is, dangerously high,⁶ although under the system of education which has been developed as rapidly as circumstances will allow, it is being steadily lowered. The great difficulties of Italy arise from the diversity of population, the peculiar relations with the Roman church, and the complication of its affairs with those of the continent.

Race differences.

While the population of Italy has common interests growing out of geographical association, and rests upon a common race stock, it has been diversified by the grafts upon that stock and by the course of Italian history. The original race stock has been modified by Greek, Saracenic, and a slight Teutonic infusion in the south, and by Celtic and Teutonic elements in the north. Northern or Upper Italy possesses an intelligent population, trained during centuries in a measure of self-government. With this population that of Middle Italy could readily fuse, although, because of the papal tyranny, it was far behind the northern Italians in training for citizenship. South Italy, on the other hand, brought to the new kingdom a large population, restless, thriftless, with vices and social traits peculiar to itself.⁷ In this southern district the mingling of races — Greek, Saracen, French, Spanish, and Italian — has been such as to



⁶ Illiterates over twenty years of age, — In 1861, male, 65.47, female, 81.52; in 1871, male, 60.17, female, 77.18; in 1881, male, 53.89, female, 72.93 per cent. The reduction here indicated has continued, but statistics are not at hand to show its exact extent.

⁷ The difference in the quality of the population is strikingly shown by the statistics of illiteracy. The percentage of the population above six years of age who could neither read nor write in 1881 was in Upper Italy, 40.85, in Middle Italy, 64.61, in Southern Italy, 79.46; and in the Islands, 80.91.

produce a people of peculiar instability; and since 1879 this division of the kingdom has been most influential in its politics, dragging the north down to its level, instead of being raised to the more conservative standard of Piedmont, which dominated the earlier years of the struggle for Italian unity. The result has been the demoralization of Italian politics by the substitution of family loyalty and personal relations for that strong and consistent party organization which is necessary for successful parliamentary government. The Camorra of Naples and the Mafia of Sicily, the dangerous secret societies of the Two Sicilies, long held a great influence in politics and are not yet wholly eliminated, in spite of the efforts of the government to crush them.

Demoralizing influence of South Italy.

The second element of difficulty has been and continues to be the Roman church. Whatever might be the character of the popes and of individual members of the hierarchy, long centuries of temporal power and of intermingling with secular politics had bred corruption and intrigue in Roman circles. No government in Italy had been more repressive and tyrannical than that of the states of the church, none released its hold with less willingness, and the influence of the church is such as to maintain an influential party in its interest. The ecclesiastical politics of the Reformation and post-Reformation periods left a residuum in the form of a clerical party in nearly every country of continental Europe, these clericals generally being conservative to the last degree. In Italy their attitude has been peculiarly obstinate and obstructive. Acting under the papal direction they have, until very recently, abstained absolutely from participation in the political life of the kingdom and have thus formed an inert burden of sullen opposition, simply awaiting any turn that would enable the church to regain its lost power. The last act of the Italian parliament at Florence was the passage of a sweeping law giving to the pope absolute independence as a spiritual sovereign, but this was not accepted at the Vatican, where the pope chose rather to regard himself as a "prisoner," and as such to claim the sympathy of faithful Catholics. The result has been that this most Catholic of countries has shown a growing disregard for the church, and a consequent carelessness and skepticism in religion which have not been beneficial to the people. The church has shown a corresponding indifference to Italy and has devoted its attention largely

Roman Church and Italian State.

Growing irreligion a danger.



to foreign affairs. Recent modifications in the attitude of Leo XIII. point to the possible prevalence of better counsels at the Vatican and the opening of friendly relations between the pope as

ONE GREAT PROBLEM OF ITALIAN POLITICS. THE VATICAN.

bishop of Rome and the Italian government. Such an understanding would doubtless be to the advantage of both. The Italian state needs the cordial coöperation, without interference, of the Italian church; and the church will be freed from much temptation if it assumes its normal spiritual functions and ceases to struggle for temporal power, which must always degrade it. Before this sympathy can be possible, however, there must be a great change in the papal attitude. It was hardly an accident that the declaration of papal infallibility by the Vatican council of 1870, setting a nineteenth-century seal upon the medievalism of the Council of Trent, so closely preceded the Italian occupation of Rome.

Entanglement of
Italy with foreign
politics.

Finally, Italy has been so dependent upon outside aid during the whole process of reconstruction that it has become involved in foreign entanglements to an unfortunate degree. The friendship of France was always self-interested, and when this began to appear, pro- and anti-French parties were developed. This is always an unhealthy line of party division, as the United States learned by a similar experience in its earliest years. To secure recognition in Europe, Cavour found it necessary to make Sardinia a military power. To maintain the place which national pride demands, and to prevent any reaction, the new kingdom of Italy has sought to solve its problems of internal regeneration and maintain a place among the great powers of Europe at the same time. This has put a heavy strain upon an almost bankrupt treasury, for the maintenance of an army disproportionate to the real needs of Italy, and for the development of a costly navy.

Demoralization of
politics.

All these dangers might have been safely weathered but for the demoralization of politics that has been going on for twenty years. No strong statesman, except perhaps Francesco Crispi, who has frequently suffered for others' errors, has arisen to take the place left vacant by Cavour; and the late King Humbert was not by any means the equal of his father. Although it has a democratic organization, much still depends upon the monarchy, which is necessary to give cohesion to the state. Italy is far from being fitted yet for a republic, with dreams of which the eloquent vicarious statesmanship of Mazzini inspired many of his countrymen. The parliamentary system does not work well in the existing condition of Italian politics. Instead of two strong parties, aligned upon definite politics, parliament is broken into groups, as in France, but with this difference,—that in Italy their basis is purely personal, and since the eight years of control by Depretis (1879–1887) the machinery of government has been used with brazen frankness for the benefit of personal combinations of political operators. Not simply in the bestowal of office, but in the extravagant building of railroads, in questionable banking operations, and in other similar ways does the legislative branch corrupt the politics of the kingdom.*

Personal influence
and corruption.

Under such conditions the sectional antipathies of the older Italy, temporarily suppressed by the nobler national ambitions of the people, have revived and been fostered by politicians ambitious of personal profit. Even the army has been utilized for personal ends, and the inefficiency of its organization was shown in the Abyssinian campaigns.

Friendly relations
with Austria.

One of the almost paradoxical results of the triumph of German and Italian unity has been the establishment of the closest and friendliest relations between Germany and Italy and their old enemy and oppressor, Austria. This friendship has been cemented in the *Dreibund*, or Triple Alliance, organized primarily to maintain the balance of Europe. It has not been maintained by Italy without opposition, a considerable number of Italian liberals wishing to see Italy allied with the two democratic western powers, France and England, that have most in common with its larger ambitions for freedom. That it would be better for Italy if it could pursue its own development, unhampered by costly alliances, cannot be doubted; but it is perhaps impossible under existing European conditions. A party of extremists, known as the Irredentists, desires to regain Trieste and southern Tyrol, Nice, Corsica, and Malta, but this party has thus far had little influence, owing perhaps to the good understanding with Austria.

In spite of the troubles and embarrassments inseparable from its historic development and the conditions that gave it national life, the future of Italy is far from hopeless. The system of compulsory educa-



*The curious effect of these conditions upon the politics of the kingdom is well stated by Lowell, "Governments and Parties in Continental Europe," Vol. I., p. 225.

tion is being better enforced; judicial reforms are making gradual progress; and the diffusion of knowledge will bring with it in some measure better citizenship. But something much higher and stronger than knowledge is needed for the Italian people—that is a strong moral influence which shall elevate the tone of public and private life. The present educational tendency is toward the classical, which holds up the glory of Rome before the excitable Italian ambition. The church has lost its hold, except in formal observance. These things must be corrected, and with their correction, which is always possible, Italy has it in her power to enter upon a strong, independent, national career.

Possibilities of the new Italy.

CHAPTER VII.

THE DUAL MONARCHY.

Perhaps no European state is less understood by the world outside than the dual monarchy, Austria-Hungary—the so-called Austrian empire. It is in no sense a national state with a national purpose and policy. It is an accident of historical politics; a heterogeneous mixture of peoples of different races, languages, and aims. In spite of all that has been done since 1865 to put it in line with modern political ideas, it remains an anachronism in nineteenth-century Europe. Why, then, does it continue to exist in spite of the continued attacks to which for half a century it has been subjected? Partly by the force of tradition; partly, as Mr. Freeman has pointed out,¹ because the one true nationality within it—the Magyar nation of Hungary—has from pride of race held it together on many occasions; but more especially because its breaking up would disturb so many European adjustments and arouse so many dangerous rivalries and aspirations that European statesmen could hardly view its disintegration with serenity. From its position it is the keystone of many problems interesting to the rest of Europe, a fact which accounts for its great importance in the past.

The dual monarchy not a national state.

The policy of Austria, therefore, has not been the policy of a nation, a people, but the policy of its ruling house, the Hapsburgs. From the fifteenth century the Hapsburgs held without break the nominally elective office of emperor of the Holy Roman empire. They were princes of German origin, who acquired possession of a group of territories from one of which, the archduchy of Austria, they derived their title. Later they became possessed of claims to the crowns of Bohemia, Hungary, and certain appanages, while the imperial office gave them a preëminent position in Germany and Italy. At the command of Napoleon I. in 1804, Francis I. gave up the title of Holy Roman emperor, and from that hour the most exalted temporal dignity in Europe lapsed forever into the limbo of antiquities. But Francis assumed another title for which there was no warrant in history or in fact, that of Emperor of Austria, which is retained by courtesy. With its adoption the title of emperor has ceased to have any significance. Europe once recognized in the emperor its titular head, an official grade above that of any king. Since the archduke of Austria called himself an emperor to gratify his pride, every expanding European state has become an empire. There is, then, no Austrian state; there is merely a collection of states under one head, bound together by certain agreements in the nature of treaties, and called by courtesy the Austrian empire, but properly the Austro-Hungarian monarchy, or Austria-Hungary.

The house of Hapsburg.

Up to 1848 this state, dominating central and southern Europe, blocked all progress and itself retained the antiquated political methods of a past



¹ In his valuable introduction to the translation of Leger's "History of Austro-Hungary."

The influences of
1848.

century — government by an absolute monarch, a chief minister, and a wretched bureau system. The nobles retained their feudal powers and privileges, and local administration was in their hands. This government was a hodgepodge of historical accidents, with no reasoned system in it all. The revolution of 1848 struck successfully at feudal privileges, but

was suppressed by military force. The passionate nationalism that has grown so strong and all-compelling in world politics, had come into vigorous life among the various peoples of the Hapsburg dominions, and the emperor was able to play nationalities against nationalities and thereby establish a completely centralized military absolutism. In its reactionary course the Hapsburg government found an efficient ally in the Roman church, which had set itself obstinately against any movement for popular liberty or nationality. For ten years Austria remained a despotic, ultramontane power, its peoples in a state of intellectual coma, and its finances falling into increasing disorder. The



EMPEROR FRANCIS
JOSEPH OF AUSTRIA.
THE OLDEST MON-
ARCH OF CONTI-
NENTAL EUROPE.

shifty diplomacy of the same period destroyed its European prestige.

Reforms of 1860.

The Italian war of 1859 brought out in striking relief the fatal errors of this policy, and Francis Joseph, who had succeeded to the Hapsburg sovereignty in 1848 upon the abdication of his uncle and the renunciation of his father, committed himself to the necessary task of reform. In 1860 a number of representatives of the different states met the emperor and the council of state to consider a reorganization. The German element of the west advocated a centralized government; but the majority, representing the various nationalities, carried a federal plan, of national assemblies, with a common imperial council of delegates from these assemblies. This council was to have jurisdiction over finance, the army, and the postal system. The narrow interpretation of this law by the imperial ministry and its broad interpretation by the Hungarian assemblies produced trouble at once, and in 1861 a much more centralized system took its place. The imperial council became a bicameral parliament with full powers of legislation for the empire; the functions of the national assemblies were restricted, and they were to be reorganized on a uniform plan, without regard to national customs. Theoretically this was a good piece of political work, but it was entirely unfitted for the mixed Austrian body. It failed after three years of trial in which only the Germans showed any interest in it.

Federalism.

Centralism.

The insistence of the Magyars upon the historic rights of Hungary raised a sharp issue. A centralizing policy had been proved impossible. Two other solutions of the problem offered themselves — a general confederation, recognizing all the nationalities, which seemed to make too much for separatism; and a dual system, in which the powers should be divided between the Austrian Germans and the Hungarian Magyars. Prussia's success in the Seven Weeks' war was a blessing to Austria, relieving that country of its embarrassing and useless German hegemony and of its chief remaining Italian province, Venetia. This cleared the way for complete

Dualism.

reorganization, which was accomplished on the basis of the dual monarchy. To aid in this work Francis Joseph called into his service as his chancellor Count Beust, a former minister of the King of Saxony, and an opponent of Bismarck. Beust was an able statesman, and did good service in placing Austria among the modern states of Europe.

The *Ausgleich*, or agreement, of 1867 is the basis of this unique state organization. It is in no sense a constitution, resembling much more a treaty between two independent states. The union arises not from sympathy, which is wholly lacking, but from common necessity. Austria needs support to prevent dismemberment by Germany, Italy and the Slavs. The Magyars, who are likewise made strong by the union, are an alien body in Europe, surrounded by Slavonic peoples who would be likely to overwhelm them if they stood alone. So for over thirty years an unprecedented and clumsy political arrangement has been maintained. The *Ausgleich* divides the Hapsburg domains into the cis-Leithan provinces, seventeen in number,¹ which pertain to Austria; and the trans-Leithan,²

The compromise of 1867.

Its basis in self-interest.



MAP OF AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

pertaining to Hungary. Each of these two main divisions, the Austrian empire and the Kingdom of Hungary, is a separate state with its own parliamentary government, acting independently upon all matters except foreign affairs, in which the two act as a unit through a common ministry; military and naval affairs which are entrusted, except legislation concerning the army, to a common war ministry; and finance, so far as it concerns common expenditures, "and fixing the conditions for raising, applying, and paying loans, after the parliaments of Austria and Hungary have determined by parallel laws that a loan shall be raised."³ Since 1878 the administration of the provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina has also been a common concern. A deliberative body consisting of two

The common government.

¹ Lower Austria, Upper Austria, Salzburg, Styria, Carinthia, Carniola, Trieste and district, Görz and Gradiska, Istria, Tyrol, Vorarlberg, Bohemia, Moravia, Silesia, Galicia, Bukowina, Dalmatia.

² Hungary (including Transylvania), Croatia and Slavonia.

³ Lowell, II., 168.

Magyar predomi-
nance.

delegations of sixty each from Austria and Hungary meets alternately in Vienna and Buda-Pesth to legislate upon the matters that are administered in common, but their field of action is strictly limited. They deliberate separately and act separately, except in case of a deadlock, when the vote is taken in joint session, without debate. In this and in all other details there will be noticed an intention to maintain an absolute equality, so far as the machinery of the joint government can do it. As a matter of fact Hungary is the real power in the combination, because of the greater national cohesion among its people. The Magyar element is so strongly predominant that it always controls the Hungarian parliament and delegation, so that the latter possesses a unity of action, based upon a consciousness of support, that is lacking on the Austrian side, where the German plurality is constantly engaged in race strife with strong Slavonic and Polish groups, which are powerful factors in the Austrian parliament and delegation.⁵ This greater national cohesion gives the Hungarian national ministry influence in the affairs of the monarchy, that the Austrian ministry, dependent upon shifting coalitions of parliamentary groups, fails to obtain. It also tends to make the emperor practically absolute in Austria, because of the factional subdivisions that prevent the organization of any effective opposition.⁶ Thus the only real national life of the dual monarchy belongs to the Magyar nation, organized in the Hungarian kingdom, and jealously guarding its prerogatives and independent political existence. Paying only thirty per cent of the common expenses it exercises a preponderance in the common councils.⁷

⁵ A peculiar feature of the Austrian parliamentary system is the distribution of electors into five classes, the great landowners, rural districts, cities, chambers of commerce, and general class. Seats in the House of Representatives are apportioned among these classes, and a table showing their distribution will indicate approximately the strength of the different provinces and nationalities. The general class, chosen by direct general election, has seventy-two members.

	Rural districts.	Cities.	Chambers of Commerce.	Great landowners.
Bohemia . . .	30	32	7	23
Moravia . . .	11	13	3	9
Galicia . . .	27	13	3	20
Lower Austria	10	17	2	8
Upper Austria	7	6	1	3
Styria . . .	9	8	2	4
Carinthia . .	4	3	1	1
Bukovina . .	3	2	1	3
Cities and Chambers of Commerce.				
Dalmatia . .	6	2		1
Istria . . .	2	1		1
Görz . . .	2	1		1
Carniola . .	5	3		2
Salzburg . .	2	2		1
Tyrol . . .	8	5		5
Vorarlberg .	2	1		0
Silesia . . .	3	4		3
Trieste . . .		4	(Elected by three electoral bodies and one chamber of commerce.)	

There are startling inequalities in the apportionment, the proportion of representation ranging from one to twenty-seven electors in the chambers of commerce, to one to eleven thousand six hundred in the rural districts.

⁶ "In theory the parliamentary system is in force, but in practice the emperor is so far from being a figure-head that since the present constitution was adopted he has actually refused to sanction a bill passed by both Houses of Parliament. If we compare his position with that of the German emperor we shall find that although the forms of parliamentary government are more closely followed at Vienna than at Berlin, yet, owing to his ability to manage the popular chamber, Francis Joseph is in fact quite as independent of popular control as William II." Lowell, "Governments and Parties," II., 77.

⁷ For a notably clear account of the dual government and its working, see Lowell, "Governments and Parties in Continental Europe," Vol. II., chap. X.

The *Ausgleich*, with its elaborate protection of Hungarian nationality, was really the device of Francis Deák, leader of the moderate national liberal party, and, as might be expected, since its adoption Hungary has been the real center of the monarchy's political life. Indeed, the Austrian parliament, from the unrestrained violence and disorder to which race rivalries have given rise, has become singularly ineffective as a legislative body. The Czechs (Bohemian Slavs), second only to the Germans in numerical strength, preserving the pride of long centuries of national history and the sense of wrong that since 1618 has embittered them against Austria, are the head and front of the opposition, and often find allies in the southeastern Slavs and the Poles of Galicia. Curiously enough Hungary has no sympathy for the national aspirations of any of these peoples, and has frequently been the chief factor in suppressing them. Between the Magyar and the Slav there is no sympathy. Had there been, the Austrian empire would have been broken up long ago.

The *Ausgleich*.

Liberalism has made slow progress in Austria, the traditions of Austrian administration and the unsatisfactory condition of party politics hindering the realization of the spirit of its excellent modern constitution, which contains due provisions for civil liberty and a parliamentary monarchy. The inquisitorial Austrian police nullifies the former to a great extent. The reason for the failure of the parliamentary system has been given. Nevertheless, Austria has made distinct advances in political organization since 1867. Sincere attempts at liberal government have been made. The first government after the reorganization in 1867 passed a set of laws which practically nullified the concordat of 1855 with the pope, which had held Austria in the bonds of outworn methods. These laws recognized civil marriages, took education out of the control of the church and gave it to the state, and established religious equality and freedom. In 1874 the concordat, which had been greatly infringed by these laws, was annulled, and the extent of autonomy of the church was regulated, the law referring to "the inviolable rights of the state." These progressive measures were sustained in spite of papal protest and ultramontane opposition, and mark the advance that this once hidebound country is making along modern lines.

Austrian progress.

The administration by Austria-Hungary of Bosnia and Herzegovina, under the decree of the Congress of Berlin in 1878, raised new questions in both parts of the monarchy. The assumption of responsibility for the two Turkish provinces was bitterly opposed in Austria and Hungary, and Francis Joseph, who was pliable in domestic affairs but determined in his foreign policy, opened negotiations with the Bohemian Czechs, inducing them to participate in parliament, although they "reserved the question of the constitution and crown of Bohemia." In Austria, owing to the peculiar situation as regards parties, the emperor nominates ministers to suit himself, and they create their own majorities by negotiations with different groups. Count Taaffe, who was called upon to form a ministry in 1879, continued at the head of the government until 1893. His policy was generally federalist, the German centralist opposition to the government's foreign policy having put that party out of favor. Social democratic agitation and the young Czech national movement became so strong and so aggressive that in 1893 a new ministry was formed, backed by a parliamentary coalition of most composite character, to check these movements. Since 1896 the conflict has been between a conservative aristocratic coalition, in alliance with the emperor, and the new democratic parties — Social Democrats and anti-Semites in Austria, and young Czechs in Bohemia. The political condition of Austria can, therefore, by no means be considered as stable. Its adjustments are but temporary makeshifts, with no safe permanent basis in evidence. Corruption is openly practised and the use of bribery, even in cabinet circles, is

Changes of 1878.

Nationalist and democratic parties in Austria.

acknowledged. While much progress has been made in constitutionalism and liberal legislation in the Austrian state, in administration liberal methods gain ground more slowly; and national unification seems as far off as ever. The confusion of tongues recalls the tower of Babel, and language seems to be more significant of national divisions than race, so that we find a changeable and uncertain line of party division even here.

In Hungary the liberal constitutionalists have held control since the *Ausgleich*. Their policy has been the development of the prosperity of Hungary and the consolidation of Magyar nationality, with full control of all domains that have ever belonged to the Hungarian crown. In both directions the government has been successful. In but one quarter has it met determined opposition. Croatia, from the beginning of the union, asserted its "historic rights" with such precision and energy that it obtained marked concessions from the Hungarian government. The Bosnian difficulty revived the Croatian national agitation. Interference in Bosnia by Austria-Hungary was resisted by the people, who spoke the Croatian tongue. Sympathy with them on national grounds was strong in Croatia, where the idea of a greater Croatia, to include Croatia, Dalmatia, Slavonia, and Bosnia, gained strong support, creating a Slavonic agitation against Magyar control which may not of itself be of much avail but might be utilized by enemies of the dual monarchy, or be made effective if a union of the nationalities should ever be accomplished against the present dual arrangement.

The greater Croatia movement in Hungary.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE EMPIRE OF THE TSARS.

In the development of free, progressive, and constitutional government the lead has been taken by western states, England being the source of diffusion of liberal ideas. Of the six great powers of Europe, Great Britain, France, and Italy, in that order, represent the freest growth of democracy. Of the eastern powers, we find Germany and Austria still conservative, still holding many of the tenets of eighteenth-century absolutism, still avoiding parliamentary control, while conceding parliamentary forms to the spirit of the age. In both, however, much has been gained, especially in Germany, in whose western states progressive influences and democratic ideas are strong. In the preceding chapter some of the forces were pointed out that have alternately pushed Austria-Hungary forward and held it back, and it was shown that, as compared with its condition in the middle of the century, it has clearly attained a place politically among modern states whose outlook is forward. There remains to be considered the gigantic state of eastern Europe, a true empire in extent and government, that stands like a colossus with one foot planted firmly in the Occident, and the other with equal firmness in the Orient.

Progress comes from the west.

The colossus of East and West.

A patriarchal monarchy.

Of internal political history in the nineteenth century Russia has little. It is still a paternal despotism of the antique patriarchal type. In its immediate neighbors on the west the people have been able to make their rulers feel at least an indirect pressure that has led to the granting of increasing liberties and privileges. The ignorance of the great mass of the Russian peasantry, their dissemination over vast areas, with few large towns, their lack of national cohesion due to the mingling under Russian rule of numerous European and Asiatic peoples, and the control of a large part of this population by an oriental and strongly imperialistic church, have made it impossible for any true popular movement toward constitutional liberty or democratic government to arise in Russia. Among the educated classes a comparatively small revolutionary party has carried on an active propaganda, to which the rash deeds of violent groups have

attached an undeserved reputation for criminality; but there is no restlessness among the great mass of the Russian people. So far they are well content with a government that is perhaps better adapted to their present needs than a freer and more popular one would be.

The tsar, like the patriarchal head of the ancient family in which we find the earliest prototype of civil organization, is the father, religious head, lawgiver, and absolute ruler of his people. By constant intermarriages for two centuries with princely German houses the reigning family has become almost wholly German in blood, and the enlighten-



HOUSE OF ROMANOFF
TSARS,
MOSCOW.

ment of the west has gone into the administration of Russia, cultivating its material resources and enabling it to make good its claim to be one of the great powers. Intelligent thought, supported by all the resources of modern science, and executed with that certainty which is only possible to unchecked personal rule, has given Russia a wonderful impulse in material development. Mr. Marion Crawford makes one of his characters, speaking of the administration of justice in Russia, say: "In an autocratic country there is a visible, tangible repository of power to whom you can apply. If the repository is in the humor you will get whatever you want done, in the way of justice or injustice. Now in a free country justice is absorbed into the great cosmic forces, and it is apt to be an expensive incantation that wakes the lost elementary spirit." There is as much wisdom as wit in this remark, and what is true of justice is also true of the other functions of government. Not only is governmental action certain and direct, but in an absolute hereditary monarchy the larger policy of the state is likely to be more consistent and continuous. And this has been true of Russia.

Autocracy.

The grand policy of the Russian state is exceedingly clear and simple, however complex may be at times the diplomacy by which it is carried out. This policy consists in the consolidation of Russian nationality, the union of the Slavonic race under Russian leadership, the steady expansion of territory on the south and east, wherever the needs of the nation seem to require, and the development to the highest degree of the economic resources of the enormous country ruled by the tsars.

Russian grand
policy.

The thirty years' reign of Nicolas I. were evil years for Russia. An oriental despot in spirit, Nicolas left the details of government to a bureaucracy, which grew more venal and corrupt as years went on. He aspired to dictation in European affairs and aroused intense hostility on the part of the western powers, which culminated in the Crimean war, when his aggressive action toward Turkey offered an excuse. The Crimean war was primarily fought to humiliate Russia and if it was only partially successful in doing this, so far as the world outside was concerned, it at least showed the Russians themselves the vicious character of the system under which they were living. The demand for reform

Nicolas I.,
(1825 - 1855.)

Oriental despotism.

MOSCOW AND THE
KREMLIN.



Alexander II.,
(1855-1881.)

Emancipation of
the serfs.

Alexander's other
reforms.

was as plain as such a demand can be in Russia; and Alexander II., who succeeded his father in 1855, began his reign in a liberal spirit, and undertook, while maintaining the autocracy, to make extensive reforms.

His greatest achievement was the emancipation of the serfs, of whom there were over fifty millions. Nine-tenths of the cultivable land of Russia was held in vast estates belonging to the tsar and princes of the imperial family, and to about one hundred thousand families of the nobility. These estates were cultivated by serfs bound to the land. The owners acted as their masters, and in a great number of cases serfage was practically slavery, except that the landowner had no power of alienation. The conditions that grew out of this relation were such as always obtain when a helpless peasant, without legal status or political power, is placed at the mercy of an arrogant master of higher social grade.¹ To change a status that permeated the whole economic and social structure was a gigantic task, but it was accomplished partly by persuasion and partly by pressure; and after three years of effort, beginning with the emancipation of the imperial serfs in 1858, serfdom was finally abolished in Russia by a ukase of the tsar on the 19th of February, 1861. The emancipated serfs could become proprietors, having the right to purchase a certain amount of land, for which the state would advance four-fifths of the necessary amount. This was to be repaid at the rate of six per cent annually for forty-nine years. The ownership was collective, being vested in the village community, or *mir*, which became the administrative unit, with police powers, for the new body of peasant proprietors. The plan, of which this is but an outline, was elaborate in its detail and required time for its execution. It was probably as equitable a plan as could have been devised for so difficult a set of conditions.

Other reforms inaugurated by Alexander included the institution of an independent judiciary; the organization of district and provincial assemblies, or *zemstvos*, for local administration; a partial removal of the censorship of the press in St. Petersburg and Moscow; organization of public schools on the western model, including scientific schools; and the reorganization of the army according to the Prussian system. Of these



¹ Graphic pictures of the life of the serfs may be found in the writings of Turgenev.

progressive measures, the judiciary was ignored a few years later in political cases, and the old arbitrary administrative process was resorted to; while the *zemstvos*, intended to be machinery for effective local self-government, came practically under the direction of imperial officers and lost their real significance. Expectations of a constitution that were aroused by this extensive liberal program were curiously destroyed by the tsar, who seems to have been appalled after a little time by the magnitude of his own reforms and to have wavered. However that may be, Russian officialdom was staggered by the innovations and did not hasten their fulfilment.

The ill-advised Polish insurrection of 1863, which was a product of the excited nationalism of the time, and sought union and autonomy for the provinces of the old Polish kingdom — Poland, Lithuania, and Podolia — followed close upon several concessions to Poland and therefore aroused the indignation of Alexander, doubtless having much to do with turning him into the conservative, almost reactionary, course which he soon took. An independent Poland he called an "idle dream." Insurrection was vigorously suppressed by Mouravief; Russification of Poland was carried out unsparingly. The country has remained practically under martial law.

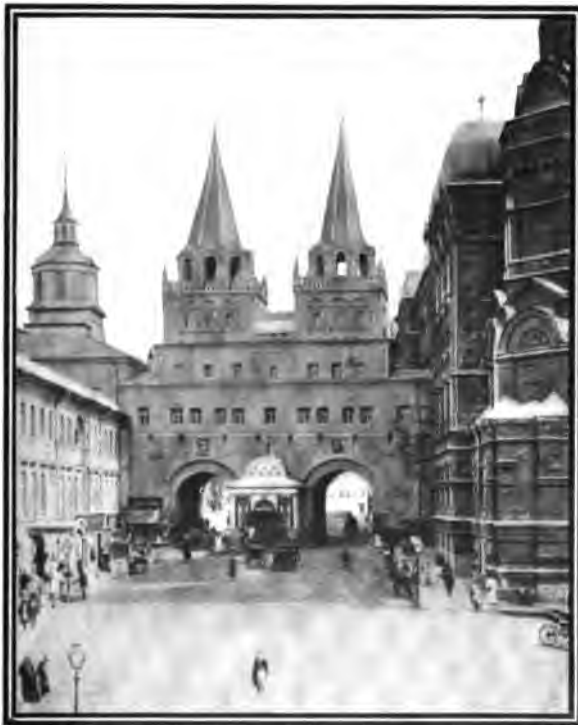
A conservative nationalist party had arisen in Russia, known originally as the Slavophiles, whose main idea was Slavic union under Russia. The party had disapproved of the Polish nationalists as traitors to the cause of the Slavs. It was the basis of that strong Russian nationalist party which today is emphasizing Russian nationality and exclusiveness, as against that broad cosmopolitanism that was so marked a characteristic of the upper classes of the last generation.

A liberal party, encouraged by the tsar's program, arose in 1861, favoring even wider reforms and a modern constitution. The reception of its demands by the tsar has been noted. The defects and in

some cases failure of the tsar's reforms were criticized by this party, composed mainly of the educated nobility. This criticism, in the lack of means to secure positive remedies for the defects complained of, took the form of a helpless pessimism, and Turgenev gave these critics the name of "nihilists," which has since been used inaccurately to define the active revolutionary parties. The attempt of a Russian, Karakasof, to assassinate Alexander in 1866 led to severe measures on the part of the government against this dangerous opposition, and many of the Nihilists became exiles and imbibed socialistic ideas abroad from followers of Marx

Russification of Poland.

The Russian nationalists.



A GATE OF OLD MOSCOW.

The liberal party.

and Proudhon. Returning to Russia the agitation took on a sentimental democratic aspect for a few years, and in 1879 the revolutionary Terror was organized by extreme spirits, intoxicated with the idea of freedom. This party was well organized, but always small. In 1880 under Loris Melikoff, who was given large powers by the tsar, a new régime of liberalism was about to be entered upon, and a decree which would have

instituted representative government in Russia was ready for promulgation, when the tsar was assassinated, on the 13th of March, 1881, by an agent of the Terrorists.

Alexander III. took for his advisers the most extreme absolutists and nationalists, chief among



ENTRANCE TO
THE HERMITAGE,
ST. PETERSBURG.

them Katkoff, leader of the extreme Russian party, and Pobedonostzeff, his spiritual adviser and administrative head of the Holy Synod. The latter has recently published a book, the English translation of which has the title "Reflections of a Russian Statesman," which is of value as setting forth the views of one of the most influential of Russians, both in church and state, upon the place and destiny of Russia among the nations. Pobedonostzeff holds that Russia is to become the leader of the world and its savior from western error and degeneracy; that she is safeguarded by her autocracy, her religion, and the village community. Coming from the chief adviser of the late tsar and one of great influence with the present tsar, this view of Russia's destiny may not be irrelevant as a suggestion of the aims of Russian policy.

The reign of Alexander III. was characterized by a policy of peace toward Europe, and by marked kindness toward the peasantry; but the latter was a part of that autocratic paternalism which rigorously restricted freedom of the press, of education, and of religion, and suppressed every indication of national spirit in the alien provinces. Under him the Russification of the provinces was pushed unsparingly, except in the case of Finland. This process consisted of the substitution of the Russian language for the native tongues as the official language and in the schools, and the imposition of imperial administration for local political and economic institutions. The Jews, who were pervading all Russia and absorbing its trade, were also proceeded against with great severity, their privileges curtailed and even their right of residence limited to fifteen western provinces included in what is known as the Pale. Otherwise, the reign was one of considerable economic development, the adoption of a protective policy and other fiscal measures improving the condition of the finances. The French loan of 1887 marked the beginning of the intimate relations between France and Russia, which have so largely influenced later European diplomacy.

The present tsar has been something of a puzzle to the world. Much was expected of him by the friends of Russian progress, because of his known inclination toward liberalism. His course has been somewhat, but,

Alexander III.,
(1881-1894.)

Peace and con-
servatism.

Anti-semitism.

Nicolas II.,
(1894-)

not wholly, disappointing. A considerable influence has been retained by Pobedonostzeff, whose views have already been referred to. The Russian national party has grown in strength until revolution and socialism, if they exist, are lost in greater movements and are heard of no more. The good understanding with France continues, being based on the solid ground of financial self-interest. The general peace policy inaugurated by Alexander III. has been emphasized by an attempt to reach a basis of universal peace through the Peace Congress at The Hague. The initiation of this movement by Russia has been the subject of heated controversy as to the Russian motive. It may have been due in part to the enlightened views of the tsar, but its promotion by Russia was unquestionably dictated by self-interest. It is to be noted that Russia is now at the highest point of prosperity that she has yet attained, and is putting forth strenuous efforts to extend and consolidate her vast empire. Peace is the need of the Russian nationalists — a peace that will enable them to negotiate with China for Manchuria, and to utilize their wealth in the building of railroads and in promoting unity in other ways. They do not wish to be disturbed in the Russification of Finland and the other provinces, which is an important part of the nationalist scheme.

General peace policy.

The grand duchy of Finland, Russian by conquest since 1809, has always maintained its national organization, and even Alexander III. exempted it from his scheme of Russification. Nicolas II., in an imperial rescript after his accession, promised to protect the Finns in their rights, privileges, and religion; but the peace manifesto and the decree Russifying Finland came at about the same time. The latter violation of faith and outrage upon a loyal province has been lost sight of in the rapid succession of events of greater importance to the world, but it stands as a striking evidence that whatever may be the personal inclination of the tsar, the nationalism of Katkoff and Pobedonostzeff is at present the ruling influence at St. Petersburg.

Finland.

We are apt to think of a so-called absolute monarchy as depending for its policy solely upon the will of the sovereign, but every ruler, however great his power, must depend upon the support of a strong class, to whose wishes he must defer. When it is a majority, we have a democratic monarchy. It has already been shown that such a popular will cannot at present be created in Russia. The tsar depends upon the support of the dominant class, the military aristocracy, and it is to the will of the tsar, as modified by the will of this class, that we must look for an explanation of Russian policy. The pride of this class is intense and demands the upbuilding of Russia, and that is best subserved by peace. Should this need of peace for Russia cease, the powerful military machine that is being organized, along with railroads, canals, and ports, would be set in motion, and the tsar's benevolent dream would lose its charm for Russia.

Dependence of monarchs.

As to the future of Russian liberalism it may be said that the inevitable result of Russia's increasing material progress, and of its growing contact with other peoples, will be the gradual widening of the ideas of the Russian people until under the leadership of educated liberal Russians they will seek and obtain by degrees those rights and privileges that men always demand when society has developed to the right point; but it will be a long and slow process for such ideas to percolate through Russia's great area and into her scattered rural communes, and to counteract the anti-liberal oriental influences which are a part of Russian history and are strengthened by her present policy.

Future of Russian liberalism.

REVIEW QUESTIONS.

1. Why did Germany remain disunited so much longer than other European nations?
2. How did William I. differ from his brother, Frederick William IV.?
3. How was Bismarck especially fitted to deal with the problem of German unity?
4. What was the plan by which he hoped to gain his object?
5. Why was Bismarck determined to secure

CHAPTER V.

Schleswig and Holstein for Germany? 6. How did Bismarck draw Italy into an alliance? 7. How did Prussia prove more than a match for Austria? 8. Describe the struggle with France. 9. Why is Germany not yet a democracy? 10. What was the result of Bismarck's struggle with the pope? 11. What is the character of the present emperor?

CHAPTER VI.

1. What peculiar conditions in Italy for many years made unity impossible? 2. Why was the chief hope of Italy in the Kingdom of Sardinia? 3. What was the character of Cavour? 4. Why was his Crimean war policy a wise one? 5. How did Napoleon III. fail Italy at a critical moment? 6. Describe Garibaldi's work in Sicily and Naples. 7. How was the territorial unity of Italy finally completed? 8. What race differences exist among the people? 9. Why is the position of the Roman church a drawback to Italy? 10. Why are Italy's foreign relations a source of weakness? 11. Why are her politics peculiarly corrupt? 12. What is the *Dreibund*? 13. What is the outlook for Italy?

CHAPTER VII.

1. Why does not the term "empire" properly belong to Austria? 2. Why was the revolution of 1848 unsuccessful in Austria? 3. What outside conditions make the union of Austria and Hungary essential? 4. What is their general plan of government? 5. Why is Hungary more of a power than Austria? 6. Why has progress been slow in Austria? 7. What progress has been made since 1867? 8. What aggressive young parties are being felt in Austria? 9. What is the "greater Croatia" movement in Hungary?

CHAPTER VIII.

1. Why has there been no general impulse toward popular government in Russia? 2. What advantages has the present form of government? 3. What is the "grand policy" of Russia? 4. Under what conditions were the serfs emancipated? 5. What was the effect of the insurrection of Poland? 6. What is the Russian Nationalist party? 7. Why did Alexander III. adopt a policy so different from that of his father? 8. How did he strengthen his government? 9. Why is peace desirable for Russia at present? 10. How has Nicolas II. broken faith with the Finns? 11. Upon what support does the Russian emperor rely in making his plans? 12. What is the possible future of Russian liberalism?

Search Questions.

1. What was the Holy Roman empire? 2. Who was Metternich? 3. How did Corsica come into the possession of France? 4. What is a *Landtag*? 5. What was the origin of the Papal States? 6. How did the percentage of illiteracy in Italy in 1881 compare with that of the United States? 7. Of what importance to Germany is Kiel? 8. What was the Council of Trent? 9. What famous Hungarian patriot took part in the agitations of 1848? 10. What is the origin of the word "Mark"? 11. What are rix-dollars? 12. Who was Napoleon II.?

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V.

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VI.

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TOPICAL ANALYSIS.

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William I. and Bismarck.

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CHAPTER VIII.



II. FROM ALEXANDRIA TO THE FIRST CATA- RACT OF THE NILE.*

BY FREDERICK M. DAVENPORT.



WE have entered a very fascinating and instructive land. The monuments, and even the existing life, manners, and customs, proceed in beautiful gradations up the river from Cheops and Rameses II. to Kitchener. We shall begin at Alexandria, and conclude our journey at the point which has been, through most of her history, the southern boundary of Egypt. We might this year, under proper escort, proceed with safety as far as Khartum, and gain some knowledge of the Upper Nubian and Sudanese peoples; but when

Extent of the
journey.



MAP OF EGYPT.

Bits of Egyptian
history.

the writer was in Egypt, two years ago, the sirdar had not yet effected the pacification of the dervish hordes at the junction of the White and the Blue tributaries of the Father of Rivers, and travel so far inland was not to be considered. But even though we may not satisfy our craving for Khartum, we shall still find, I think, exceeding attractiveness in this sunny land. For we are standing where art and science flourished for thousands of years before Greece was, or Rome; where there still exist, cut in imperishable rock, the earliest written words of man, expressive of his developing thoughts on time and on eternity. Great kings ruled here in might way back in the misty morning of time. We know not whence they came. There were thirty-one dynasties of native rulers from 4000 B. C.

to the time of the conquest of Alexander.¹ Cheops and Sethos I. and Rameses II. are the great names that stand out in the history of this period. After these Pharaohs, the Greeks and Romans and Byzantines



¹ The Ptolemaic dynasty was founded by one of Alexander's generals. A slab of black basalt, on which is inscribed a decree issued to commemorate the good deeds of "Ptolemy, the savior of Egypt," was found near Rosetta, a town not far from Alexandria, in 1799. The block, called the Rosetta Stone, is three feet nine inches long, two feet four and one-half inches wide, and nearly a foot thick; originally it was somewhat larger. The inscription is written in three kinds of characters: hieroglyphic, demotic, and uncial Greek text.

*The voyage from New York to Gibraltar, scenes in Tangier and Algiers, and the arrival at Alexandria, were described in the October issue.

ruled Egypt in succession, till Mohammedanism, through the armies of the Caliph Omar, conquered the country in the seventh century of our era. But the hand of Islam rests only lightly upon this people today, for Anglo-Saxon England is the dominant power in the land, and, I trust, will so remain till Egypt is redeemed from these long Mohammedan centuries of stagnation, degradation and shame.

We need not remain long in Alexandria. There is not much to interest Alexandria.

the traveler, except the memory of what this city has been and of those who have walked here.³ We recall the fact that the city was founded by Alexander the Great, 332 B. C., and so is more than two thousand years old. But it was built when other great cities of Egypt,



LA PLACE DES
CONSULS,
ALEXANDRIA.

which we shall presently explore, were beginning to decay. It has still a great population of more than three hundred thousand souls, a heterogeneous mass from every nation on the shores of the Mediterranean. We recall how, the Evangelist Mark pleaded the cause of Christ here, and if tradition is to be believed, here won the crown of martyrdom. Philo, Clement, Athanasius — great names in the early Christian church, lived and wrote in Alexandria. There still remain evidences in ruin of the English bombardment in 1882, when Great Britain entered the country nominally to secure the long overdue interest on Egyptian bonds, but actually to govern poor, decadent Egypt in the interest of justice and liberty and civilization. The one remaining conspicuous work of antiquity is Pompey's Pillar, the important fact to notice about which is that it is in no way, so far as anybody knows, associated with the career of the famous Roman. It has been standing there unharmed by the storms of two thousand years or more, a model of elegant proportion, one solid, single stone of red granite about ninety feet high, brought all the way from the quarries of Upper Egypt. (Illustration, page 185.)

Pompey's Pillar.

The journey through Egypt has been described as a donkey ride and a boating trip interspersed with ruins; but in these modern days you may go also by rail and go rapidly, if you are willing to sacrifice one-half the charm. If you have three months at your disposal, you may engage a *dahabiyeh*, as it is called, and sail when there is wind and be rowed when there is none. It is a very comfortable and independent way of traveling, and very quieting to the nerves, but it costs in time and money. If you have three weeks at your disposal, you may go up by tourist steamer, and find at every stopping-place of interest donkeys to carry you inland wherever you wish to explore.

Modes of travel.

At Alexandria we received word that our steamer had already begun

³ The Alexandrian Library was founded by Ptolemy Philadelphus, king of Egypt about 275 B. C. It is supposed to have contained about five hundred thousand volumes. The library was partially destroyed in 391 A. D., and in 642 it was burned by Caliph Omar. His reason is said to have been that if books agree with the Koran, they are unnecessary; if they do not agree with it, they should be destroyed.

Up the river.

the ascent of the river, and was at Luxor. So we hurried on at once in a very prosaic, but modern and luxurious, continental sleeping-car, which was making its second run over the line; and, after a race of twenty hours, caught up with the leisurely river boat, moored contentedly at the wharf of ancient Thebes. Although it was still the month of January, the afternoon sun was so hot that it seemed safe and wise to seek rest and refreshment on the shady side of the steamer, until the characteristic

evening coolness, which comes at once with the sinking sun, had spread itself over the scene. In good time we shall return to Memphis and Cairo and the pyramids, which we have so unceremoniously left behind, and with them strange sights gained from the windows of the train: valleys green with corn, mud villages, small towns with mosques and minarets; brown, bare-legged men busy amid the millet and the

COLUMNS OF THE
TEMPLE OF
AMENOPHIS.



Thebes and its
temple.

wheat; veiled women and naked children at work in the fields or basking in the sun; lines of camels with long necks and high heads and patient look, bearing majestically their heavy burdens; blindfolded buffaloes furnishing the motive power which lifts the water for irrigation. We seem to have been dreamers who have ridden through wonderland.

Next morning we are ready for exploration in earnest. We are on the site of the renowned city of Thebes, which, in the time of its splendor, four thousand years ago, was above thirty miles in circuit, covering both banks of the river. How magnificent it was then when Nahum, the prophet, wrote of it, and the Greek poet, Homer, sang of "Royal Thebes, Egyptian treasure-house of countless wealth, who boasts her hundred gates; through each of which, with horse and car, two hundred warriors march." The greatest temple the world has ever seen sprang into being upon the eastern bank, while on the western shore were built the famed Colossi, and memorial chapels, too, of wondrous splendor, hard by the silent city of the dead. Thebes was the abode of triumph, of wealth, and of learning, noted above all else for the glory of her temple worship. But all that is left of her lies here upon the rock-strewn plain.

We have in the illustration a section of the Temple of Amenophis. We may notice the character of the columns, modeled after the bud of the lotus flower, the Egyptian *immortelle*, the flower of immortality.

We proceed now to the stupendous ruins at Karnak village, a short walk from Luxor, also on the site of ancient Thebes and on the same side of the Nile. Our dragoman guide, Joseph, more stupid than any Mark Twain ever speaks of in his "Innocents Abroad," bustles along with us. A friend in the party has named him "the Sphanx," in imitation of his pronunciation of the word "Sphinx." "Dis, ladees and gentlemen," he says, "is de avingoo ob Sphanx"—meaning, The Avenue of the Sphinxes. When he goes inside the gate yonder, he will point to the carvings: "Dis is de Osiris, dis is de Isis, dis is de Horus," figures which may be Cleopatra, Ptolemy and Rameses II., for all he knows. We never pay any attention, but go placidly on, consulting more reliable authorities for all authentic information.

This ancient processional roadway is still beautiful with its arching palm trees and its mutilated fragments of sculptured sphinxes. Passing through the gate, or pylon, we soon come upon two obelisks, one set up to record the honors Queen Hatasu would bestow upon the temple god, and the other to glorify the triumphs of King Thothmes. The former, and taller, is nearly a hundred feet in height. With its capstone and decorations of gold glittering in the sun, it could easily be seen from every part of the ancient city, and was revered as a royal tribute to the great divinity. A conception of what this temple was may be gained

Ruins at Karnak.



from the avenue of entrance leading to the great hall of Karnak. The broad central passageway is formed by a double row of columns measuring seventy feet in height. They have written upon them, in hieroglyphic characters, the record of the deeds of men of princely power, "whose names have long been strange to human lips." You stand in the midst of this grove of columns with an overwhelming sense of awe

THE OBELISKS AT KARNAK.

and wonder. Why built they on a scale so vast? Was it to show their own triumphant might, or was it to exhibit the power of their faith in Amen Ra, the great sun god in whom they trusted? Both purposes lent shape, no doubt, to their indomitable and matchless energy. The saddest thought is that these were not the temples of the people. They were the temples of the king and the priests and the nobility. For the masses of the subjects, and especially of the conquered peoples, these vast piles meant lifelong bondage, endless labor; and "every wind that

Temples.

GREAT PYLON,
AVENUE OF
SPHINXES, AND
GRAND COLONNADE
AT KARNAK.



An ancient Egyptian
treaty.

sweeps across these giant aisles of Karnak carries with it the sighs and groans of those who perished in the quarry, at the oar, and under the chariot wheels of the victor."

The walls of this temple are covered with important inscriptions, which have thrown much light upon the history of the Egyptians. Among others, the treaty of peace between Rameses and the Hittites of the Hebrew scriptures is worthy of notice as the first recorded agreement between nations. Our late antagonist, the queen regent of Spain, may well consider herself fortunate that she was not called upon to negotiate with this Pharaoh instead of Uncle Sam, for Rameses didn't waste any time on protocols or commissions, or pay twenty millions after his opponent had sued for peace. He evidently dictated the treaty himself, for it begins, "Rameses, chief of rulers, who fixes his frontiers where he pleases." The last clause of this document is the earliest extradition agreement between two countries calling for the reciprocal delivery of political fugitives, and it is remarkably humane for that age. It provides that "who-soever shall be so delivered up, himself, his wives, his children, let him not be smitten to death; moreover let him not suffer in his eyes, his mouth, his feet; moreover let not any crime be set up against him." And the whole is witnessed by the great god of Canaan, the great god of Egypt and all the thousand gods, male and female, the gods of the hills, the rivers, the great sea, the winds and the clouds of both lands.

Jewish names and
records.

The most highly interesting and important of all the inscriptions is the one on the south wall of the court of Sheshonk (this Sheshonk is the Shishak of the Bible), one of the last of those Pharaohs who for more than a thousand years had been busy building up the glories of Karnak. This representation commemorates the victory won by Shishak over Rehoboam, son of Solomon, King of Judah. Shishak is shown grasping a group of cowering inhabitants of Palestine by the hair and smiting them with his club. The name labels of Jewish cities are here, among others Shunem, Gibeon, and Aijalon. The captives have curved noses, prominent cheek bones and pointed beards, and one distinctive Jewish face appears which has for an inscription within the oval: Judah Melek, King of Judah. In other words, we have here a direct confirmation of the record in II. Chronicles, XII., 2, 3, 4 and 9, where we read:

"And it came to pass, that in the fifth year of king Rehoboam Shishak king of Egypt came up against Jerusalem, because they had transgressed against the Lord, With twelve hundred

chariots, and threescore thousand horsemen: and the people were without number that came with him out of Egypt; . . . And he took the fenced cities which pertained to Judah, and came to Jerusalem. . . . and took away the treasures of the house of the Lord, and the treasures of the king's house; . . . also the shields of gold which Solomon had made."

But we must pass to the western shore of the Nile, the Necropolis, the burial-place of Thebes. To reach the site of this ancient city of the dead, we must cross the river in a little sailboat, and then make a short journey over the plain on donkey back. And this will be an excellent opportunity to introduce to you the most wide-awake individual in Egypt, and his sleepy little animal companion. Our donkey boy looks peaceful and quiet enough if he is standing to have his picture taken. But, ah me! the change that comes over him when he is assembled with his comrades on the opposite bank, fifty or sixty or a hundred of him, perhaps, actively competing for a party of, it may be, ten, twenty, or thirty travelers! Then you see him at his best, or at his worst. Chattering like magpies, they stand together waiting for their prey to land from the boats, their brown arms and legs in active motion, their tattered

Characteristics of the donkey boy.



fragments of clothing fluttering in the breeze. A moment more and they will swoop down upon you with great shrewdness and flattery. Each donkey boy glances over the company, selects a victim he thinks he can impress, and pushes his donkey against him, praising the little beast the while. If the company be from America — and the donkey boy never makes a blunder in nationality — he cries out: "Hi, lady, Yankee Doodle donkey, try Yankee Doo-

THE SHISHAK INSCRIPTION, KARNAK.

dle;" or, "Him Plymouth Rock, him speak English, him say, 'how you do, sar.'" The following won me on the spot: "Ah, much fine rich Merriky gentleman, take McKinley donkey, him good donkey."

Finally, matters are adjusted to the satisfaction of everybody, except the large portion of the crowd whose steeds are not hired, and we proceed. When a distance of eight miles has been covered, we stop, and the boys say: "Poor donkey, much hungry." When we give them money to go to the nearby village and buy fodder, they put it into their pockets, and the donkeys continue hungry. Soon we continue our journey through the collection of mud hovels which passes for a modern Arab town, and within its precincts we encounter a rush of beggars, guides,

Beggars and guides.

antiquity dealers and children, screaming "Bakshish, bakshish!" a gift, a gift! Old women with veiled faces, and starved, half-naked bodies crouch against the walls and extend their hands piteously for the coveted piaster. A blind man is pushed against us, and then another blind man, and still another, for the country is full of them, because the children are never washed and the myriad flies are allowed literally to eat out the sight of the little ones, either for want of disposition to brush them away, or from a belief that it would be impious to do so. These that I have described, the children, the beggars, the blind, surround you and press their suit for money. When you try to push your way through, or even kick and strike, as tourists sometimes are forced to do, the mendicants keep their patience and say, "Good morning," or "Thank you," or "Good day," or any other phrase they have learned, and keep right on insisting upon "Bakshish."

Tomb of Rameses II.

But we have arrived at last at the portal of the ruin called the Ramesseum. In front, the headless figures, standing with arms folded, still bear the burdens imposed upon them by their royal constructors thousands of years ago. From the inscriptions we learn that this edifice was erected by Rameses II., or Rameses the Great, and dedicated to the deified shades of his departed ancestors in gratitude for his rescue from the hands of the Hittites. Whether Rameses was ever actually buried in this famous memorial is still unknown, but it is a "beautiful, cheerful ruin, with the bright sunshine overhead, and its limestone columns all mellow and golden with time." Within a few feet lies the fallen statue of the great Rameses, the king who did so much for Egypt, for Thebes, and for himself. Diodorus, the Greek historian, who saw it in the first century before Christ, before it was thrown down, refers to this statue as being in a sitting posture, and as not only the greatest in all Egypt, but admirable above all others for its workmanship and the excellence of its stone. When in position, this enormous granite figure rose to the height of nearly sixty feet. It weighs at least two million pounds, and was



A DAHABIYEH ON
THE NILE.

originally cut from a single stone in the quarries of the first cataract, carried one hundred and fifty miles on the river, and placed in position on its pedestal. Even the mutilated remains testify to the care with which the gigantic monument was chiseled and polished. It is astonishing as a wreck; it must have been more astounding as a whole. We

pause a moment for a glance at the head of this granite giant, which has become separated from the main hulk; then mount our donkeys and leave the Ramesseum, and the other beautiful memorial chapels behind, and wind our way along the sandy ravine, between limestone walls, under the never-to-be-forgotten blaze of a sun which is now high in the heavens, towards the burial-ground itself. The path leading thereto is a fitting pathway to the dead. Not a sign of vegetation has been seen here since the world began. No life could thrive in this merciless glare, no blade of grass, no breathing thing. But we must remember that it is due to

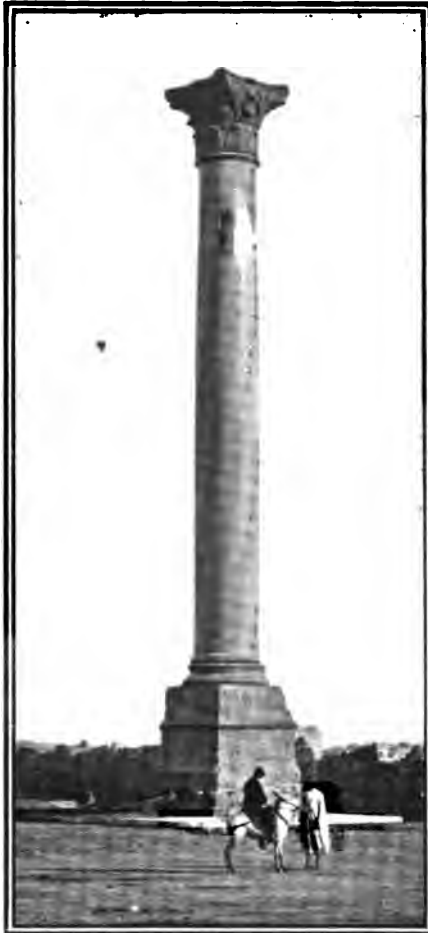
this dry atmosphere that ruined edifices, invaluable inscriptions, yea, even the bodies of the dead, have been preserved for so many centuries. When we have gone what seems to us a long way, we come upon a narrow valley, more parched and glaring than the first. A moment more and the mountain foreground is checkered with yawning tombs. We have, of set purpose, come to that section of this four-thousand-year-old cemetery where once rested the mummied remains of the great kings of the new empire. These tombs are cut in the solid rock, some of them penetrating for a distance of several hundred feet. We enter the tomb of the famous Sethos, the father of Rameses the Great. The descent is usually by an inclined plane, but in this instance the dark entrance way, which looks like a cellar door, shoots down into the bowels of the earth by a flight of steps.

We pass the silent sentry, and go down with guides and torches one hundred and eighty feet to the interior. The daylight fades behind us and we seem, indeed, to be descending into the lower world. Now we are in a long corridor which is decorated with pictures of the judgment of the

soul and the various trials it must undergo before it is deemed to be completely purified. Fantastic, ominous shapes are cut upon the walls. Huge serpents dart their venomous tongues. Two unfortunates have had their hearts torn out to be weighed. The one that stood the standard test was entering into life, and I could see only the back of his head as he struck out with a triumphant stride. The other poor fellow, his heart having been weighed in the balance and found wanting, was being driven back into the desert by the sacred beetle that watched the scales. Some were being boiled in caldrons, others had been decapitated and were being driven in headless mobs to scenes of further torment. The ancient Egyptian evidently had full faith in the primitive conception of hell. But more comforting scenes appear—Elysian fields, in which the purified dead sow and reap and gather harvest. All trials are at an end; he is at last welcomed by the gods, and enters into eternal happiness and eternal life.

In this tomb of Sethos there is no sarcophagus and no mummy. Robbing the dead was practised from very early times in Thebes. And, in truth, there was great incentive to it. These royal dead went to their dark palaces gorgeously equipped for the life to come. Their jewels, their gold and silver ornaments, their clothing, their arms, their documents—all kinds of beautiful and precious things—were buried with them.

When Belzoni discovered this tomb of Sethos I., it had already been



POMPEY'S PILLAR
AT ALEXANDRIA.

Pictures cut upon
the walls.

Robbing the tombs.

secretly entered ages before and rifled of everything save the bare granite coffin. The mummy had been hidden for safe keeping with that of his great son, Rameses II., in a shaft not far away, which was found and opened less than twenty years ago. Both mummies are now in the museum at Cairo.

Colossi of Memnon.

But we have had our fill of tombs and mummies, and the night is coming on. Homeward our donkeys wend their way across the plain, pausing only when we take a backward look at the twin Colossi of Memnon, or the Colossi of the king beloved of Ammon, the great god of Thebes, as the name implies. These monsters once stood guard over a

temple of which now no trace appears above the surface of the plain. To-day they tower far above the waving grain, and guard the fertile valley. Shattered by an earthquake of the first century, defaced by vandals since, still they remain, "grim monarchs of the silent plain, seated in motionless, sublime repose, with faces turned forever toward the dawn, with eyes that sleep not, lips that ne'er unclose; still side by side



THE COLOSSI OF
MEMNON AT THEBES.

they sit with hands laid idly on their mighty knees of stone." Each statue rises sixty feet above the ground, each leg is twenty feet, while the middle finger of each hand is more than four feet long. When the Nile is at its highest level, the waters rise to the waist of these seated figures. They have engaged the attention of nations almost from the dawn of history. An old tradition ran that, from the statue on the right, when the sun arose above the purple Arabian mountains, a strain of music issued. "Morn from Memnon," said the Greeks, "drew rivers of melody"—a sweet and melancholy cadence like that of *Æolian* wires—"soft as Memnon's harp at morning, touched with light by heavenly warning."

Farther up the
river.

Ah well, however that may be, a glorious sunset comes in Egypt at the close of every weary day; no clouds ever obscure it. The ball of fire drops into the sand of the Libyan desert; the river becomes a field of gold; women hurry to the bank to fill their water-jars; the gorgeous afterglow comes on; darkness falls, the dogs begin to bark; it is night, and all is quiet upon the shores of the river Nile. Towards morning we are made aware, by the creaking of the beams and the shaking of the machinery, that the steamer has cast off during the night, and is on her



A GENERAL VIEW
OF ASSOUAN.

way towards the terminal point of the present journey, long the southern boundary of Egypt. We make one or two landings before we reach that interesting group, the town of Assouan, the Isle of Philæ, and the first cataract. When the boat ties up anywhere, the whole male population appear *en masse*, like a horde of chattering monkeys, importunately crying, "Bakshish, bakshish!" until we vanish. Some of those in front dive into the water for small coins, thrown to them by our passengers, and a veritable Yale-Princeton football struggle goes on among a group of full-grown men for the possession of a semi-piaster, worth about two and one-half cents. Begging is a habit with the whole population in these parts. They will leave their labor in the fields, and run along the river for a quarter of a mile, when the steamer is in the center of the stream and there is no probability of our stopping and no possibility of a coin reaching them if it were thrown; and they know it. But they love to cry for it. The right to beg

"Bakshish."



takes precedence in that country over the right to life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness. Such scenes as these, again and again repeated, led to the quick calculation of a humorous friend in our party with respect to the number of mendicants in Egypt. Some one asked him how many beggars he thought there were. "What is the population of this country?" said he. "Ten millions," said his questioner. "Then there are ten million beggars," was the reply, "and there will be one more just as soon as another Arab is born." And his calculation, though rapid, is not so inaccurate.

A BISHARIN MAN,
ASSOUAN.

We have reached the city of Assouan, the gateway of the country

Assouan.

beyond the first cataract, some six hundred miles up the river. It is the terminus for the caravan road that crosses the desert, and ivory, india-rubber, ostrich feathers and other merchandise are unloaded from the camels, and shipped northward by rail or sailing vessel to Cairo and elsewhere.

By far the most interesting feature of the community is the people, especially a tribe of degenerate Bedouin Arabs, called the Bisharin, who

neither toil, spin, nor cultivate the soil, but live on minute quantities of goat's milk and a little game, with now and then a "bakshish" from a passing traveler. The illustration shows a Bisharin man. His greatest luxury is castor oil. With it he anoints his whole body. He eats it as we eat butter. His wives saturate their locks with it. You will notice the peculiar aspect of his hair, and the leathern boxes he wears upon his arm near the elbow, which contain verses from the Mohammedan scriptures, after the manner of the ancient Pharisees of Judea. The Arab in Egypt, wherever you find him, is a strange specimen. My rather irreverent friend from Chicago is of the opinion that it was a mistake



THE OBELISK
IN THE QUARRY.

to make this desert, but when it was too late to call it off, it was a very excellent idea to decorate it with the camel, the donkey, the Arab, and the goat. And of all, the Arab most engages the curiosity. He will sleep all day, just like his donkey, standing in the sun or leaning against a wall until he gets a chance to sell relics; and then he suddenly explodes like a dynamite cartridge, and everything is brought into action — vocal chords, muscles, facial expression — the whole physical and mental outfit he possesses.

From Egypt into
Nubia.

Proceeding a little farther, we pass the borders of Nubia, and the people grow darker as the sun grows hotter. Where Egypt ends and Nubia begins there exists no boundary line to tell, but the nationality of the race on each side is very sharply defined. The Nubians belong to a lower type, and speak a language derived from purely African sources. They are dirty, half-naked, muscular savages. They are more cheerful than the Arab, and more musical, but they bear in their bodies and souls the marks of an inferior race.

A GLIMPSE OF ONE
BRANCH OF THE
FIRST CATARACT.



On the way to Philæ and the head of the cataract, a short distance south of Assouan, we come upon the ancient quarries which supplied granite for the columns, statues and obelisks throughout Egypt

for many centuries. The obelisk in the illustration still lies in its native bed. It is ninety-five feet in length, and three sides have been carefully cut; but for some unknown reason it was never separated entirely from the parent rock. The surface bears the tool-marks of the workmen. The grooves in it show that it was to have been reduced at the sides. It is supposed that the stone was split from its bed by drilling holes in the rock and filling them with wooden wedges which were afterwards saturated with water, the swelling wood furnishing the power. From illustrations in the temples, it is clear that these great monuments were floated down the river on flatboats and rafts, and then carried inland by artificial canals or dragged overland by thousands of slaves. In one of the tombs at Beni-Hassan is a picture illustrating the process. The great stone is loaded upon a huge sled drawn by a multitude of workmen. One man is engaged in pouring water upon the runners to prevent friction. Another stands at the left of the statue and beats time that the men may work in unison, while overseers, provided with whips, urge the laborers to their task. What king desired to extricate this block from the quarry, why it was left here, what it was to commemorate, we can never know. The riddle of the Sphinx is solved, but the riddle of the obelisk in the quarry will no doubt remain with us forever.

Ancient granite quarries.

Five miles beyond, over the desert road which leads to Abyssinia and the Sudan is the beautiful Philæ. It is a little island only a quarter of a mile long. Its principal ruin is that of the Temple of Isis, whose tall



ARABIAN SAILBOATS ON THE NILE.

gateways are visible from the river. Instead of massiveness, here you have grace, proportion, regularity, lightness. We are now in the Greek period of Egyptian art, which followed the conquest of Alexander. Philæ was called the holy island. To the ancient Egyptian it was the deeply sacred spot of all the earth, what Mecca is to the Moslem, and Calvary to the Christian. It was the resting-place of the god Osiris. And the most solemn oath a man could utter in the Egypt of old was this: I swear by him who sleeps in Philæ. The names of pilgrim tourists of two thousand years ago are cut all over the principal temple. In that respect human nature is not greatly changed, for the same mania possesses the tourist of today.

Philæ, the holy island.

We have climbed higher on our donkeys and are looking down upon one branch of the first cataract of the Nile. Scores of native black fellows line the banks and throw themselves down thirty or forty feet from the cliff into the whirlpool, to exhibit their fearlessness, and win the traveler's favor and his money. It has taken us the best part of a half day to reach this spot from Assouan, but we shall return to our starting-point in one short, sensational half hour. The cataracts of the Nile are what an American would call rapids. The descent is rather more exciting than dangerous, especially as the natives are very skilful. Twelve Nubian blacks with two Arab steersmen manage each boat, which contains an equal number of passengers. To steer safely between rocks and little

Descent of the cataracts.

NATIVES WORKING
THE SHADOOF.



Rhythm and
Theosophy.

islands, over rapids for six miles, they must row dexterously, and to this end they are controlled by one man, who keeps the time and gives his orders rhythmically, while the blacks chant weirdly as they bend to the oar: "Mohammed, I love you, Mohammed, I love you." The chanting means everything. Not even the deck of a steamer can be scrubbed without the same unity of motion and direction of authority. This may account for the way the great stones were anciently lifted, for as far as the voice can reach, the impulse of human force can be centralized as one pull or one blow by this strange chant. After this unique experience, not unlike that of "shooting the chutes" six miles in length, we tie up to our steamer at the foot of the cataract, and soon our journey down the river is begun — a long journey that might be made by rail without loss; broken for us who remain on board by the companionship of our fellow travelers, whose qualities we are, in some instances, only just beginning to appreciate. Among half a hundred others, we shall never forget two women theosophists from Boston. The theosophist, you know, is a person who is educated in religious things beyond his capacity; and this was the trouble with our Boston acquaintances. Their chief object, as they traveled around the world, was to suck the juices from all religions. At the temple of Luxor, their hands rested on the Colossus of Rameses the Great, and they said to the dragoman, "Joseph, don't speak to us; we are receiving power!" In the avenue leading to the temple of Karnak, they stood for a long time between the feet of a bull Sphinx, and got more power. This mysterious, occult force has, no doubt, by this time reached Boston, and has been appropriately diffused among the faithful.

River life along the
Nile.

From the deck of our steamer, we see much interesting life along the river. Here we pass merchant flatboats with their peculiar two-winged sails. We have opportunity to look into the methods of irrigation, which means so much to the fertility of the river banks. Every year beginning in June, as you know, the Nile fills its bed, then overflows and spreads its freight of fresh, new earth from the Abyssinian mountains over the rich soil to the desert's edge. Then it recedes and sinks again below

the level surface of the land. By mean of canals these waters are conducted to quite remote parts of the valley. But owing to the absence of rain, the crops must be watered continually by artificial means. Hundreds of native workmen are employed to draw the water from the river and raise it to the little canals, which everywhere separate the arable land into brown and green patches. The water is lifted from the river by means of the *shadoof*. It is a rude and ancient apparatus, "a long pole like a well-sweep, with a bucket at one end and a ball of dried mud as a weight at the other." When the river is low, two men stationed near the water's edge fill their goatskin buckets, raise them with their *shadoofs*, and pour the water into a trough near by. Other men above, each with a *shadoof*, again dip and lift, until the top of the embankment is reached. Then, by the network of canals, the water is conducted over the cultivated plain. *Shadoof* work is hard, and a man has to keep on for nine hours out of twenty-four, and receives from ten to fifteen cents a day. Sometimes wells are dug here and there, into which water percolates from the Nile. This water is drawn upward by means of a huge wheel, to the rim of which are suspended earthen pitchers. This wheel is turned by another of rude gearing, to which is attached a yoke of cows or a melancholy buffalo. This arrangement is called a *sakieh*. It is as old as Egypt herself. Its atrocious creaking never ceases by day, and is sometimes heard far into the night. To grease it would be sacrilege. No drop of lubricating fluid ever touched that hoary relic of the past; no, nor ever will till English thrift and brain shall in this as other things point out the better way.

Methods of irrigation.

(To be continued.)

1. What kings and nations stand out prominently in a general view of the history of Egypt? 2. What interesting associations has Alexandria? 3. What is the impression produced by the great hall of Karnak? 4. What special interest have the Hittite inscriptions? 5. What other important inscription relates to Jewish history? 6. What is the Ramesseum? 7. Describe the famous tombs near by. 8. What are the Colossi of Memnon? 9. Where is Assuan, and what importance has it? 10. Describe the Bisharin. 11. How were the obelisks quarried and removed? 12. Describe the Island of Philæ.

Review Questions.

1. Who are the Copts? 2. Who was the probable architect of the Great Hall of Karnak? 3. What famous rulers were associated with this building? 4. What king of Egypt is commemorated on the obelisk in Paris? 5. What is a cartouche? 6. From what Egyptian cities were the obelisks in New York and in Paris secured? 7. What cities mentioned in Exodus have come to light within the past twenty years? 8. By whom discovered? 9. What does Pompey's Pillar commemorate? 10. What is a scarab? 11. What is the population of Egypt, and its chief elements? 12. What astronomical legend associated with Alexandria has been preserved through a Roman poem?

Search Questions.

Pyramids and Progress. John Ward. (Eyre & Spottiswoode, 1900.) No one book will give the reader such a clear and intelligent view of Egypt both past and present as this fascinating volume. The author has had unusual access to most reliable sources of information, and has added to these his own personal researches. The book is profusely illustrated. *The Redemption of Egypt.* W. Basil Worsfold. (Longmans, 1899.) Another delightful volume also by a most competent Englishman. The complexities of the Egyptian question of today are clearly set forth, and in connection with these, glimpses of the Egypt of the past, with illustrations by the author, give to the volume the charm of a work of travel combined with the acute observation of a trained historian. *A Thousand Miles up the Nile.* Amelia B. Edwards. (Routledge.) This volume, with another by the same author, *Pharaohs, Fellahs and Explorers*, has already become a classic from the standpoint of the student of ancient Egypt. The results of archaeological effort become a fascinating study when presented by one who was not only a practical archaeologist but a sympathetic interpreter of the spirit of Old Egypt. *Egyptian Archaeology.* G. Maspero. (Putnam's.) And *Ten Years Digging in Egypt.* (1881-1891.) W. M. Flinders Petrie. (Revell.) Give the story of archaeological researches in Egypt by the men who have made the actual discoveries. Both books are illustrated, and, while scholarly, are of a sufficiently popular character to make them intelligible even to the merest novice in Egyptian affairs. *The Cities of Egypt.* Reginald Stuart Poole. (London.) Gives brief accounts of eleven famous cities, Biblical references being taken as the keynote of each subject. *Outlines of Ancient Egyptian History.* Auguste Mariette. (Scribner's.) A compact little volume tracing the history down to the Roman period. *Mummies and Moslems.* Charles Dudley Warner. Egypt as seen by an American traveler whose observations upon nature and human life are always well worth reading. *A History of Architecture.* Hamlin. (Longmans, Green & Co.) Gives a clear account of the great periods of Egyptian architecture.

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CRITICAL STUDIES IN FRENCH LITERATURE.*

II.—MONTAIGNE AND ESSAY WRITING IN FRANCE.

BY FREDERICK M. WARREN.



MICHEL DE MONTAIGNE has come down to us as one of the most picturesque characters in the history of letters. He seems such a contrast with the life of his time. Coming into the world when political and religious prejudices — particularly the latter — were excited to their utmost, and party lines rigidly drawn, he busied himself with neither politics nor religion, in the narrow sense of those words, and persistently refused to take sides with either of the contending factions. This abstention from participating in the passions of the hour was in itself remarkable, but Montaigne went farther. He declined the emoluments of an active and public career. He gave his undivided attention to reading and study, and to better attain this object passed the majority of his years in comparative retirement. We might almost call him a bookworm, were he not a philosopher also. And bookworms and philosophers were little esteemed in the days of Coligny and Catherine de Medici, of the Duke of Guise and Henry IV.

Bookworm and philosopher.

But Montaigne's fondness for books and study was quite as pertinent to the spirit of the Renaissance as the feuds and cruelties of the Huguenots and the League. More pertinent, in fact. For the revival of learning, which had been gathering force ever since the manuscript collections of Petrarch, could hardly have foreseen that in its gift of ancient civilization to the modern world there were hidden the germs of a fierce struggle over the principles of a faith which it itself never knew. The Italian humanists of the fifteenth century even did not anticipate the strife. But it absorbed the northern nations in the sixteenth none the less completely, and in France there were few of Montaigne's contemporaries who were not soldiers before they were students.

Educated in the classics.

Perhaps his moderation or indifference was an inheritance with Montaigne. His father was a devotee of culture, spoke Latin, had ideas on education. His schoolmasters at the College of Guyenne in Bordeaux were eminent scholars, and won over the young boy — he was but six when he came under their tutelage in 1539 — to the delights of ancient literature, Latin poetry particularly. His later professional life as a lawyer attached to the Parliament of Bordeaux, was not undertaken with any great seriousness, for he resigned his functions while still in his thirties. Last of all he made a marriage of reason. Surely such a course in life was not indicative of a strenuous temperament. Nor did the composition of his Essays, his delight and his glory, proceed with any regularity or completeness. Their order and his phraseology change with each edition printed during his lifetime, and annotations in his handwriting, found with the latest copy at his death, gave rise to a new and posthumous publication of the whole work.

How the Essays were written.

It was in a circular room of the tower of the Château de Montaigne, some miles east of Bordeaux, that the Essays were conceived. Montaigne at this time was just turned thirty-eight. He had taken advantage of his succession to the family estate to withdraw from the world of affairs and give himself up entirely to literature. The room he chose for his study was his library, some thousand volumes of Greek and Latin authors and later writers garnishing the walls. These volumes became the occasion of the Essays. For Montaigne seems to have begun his literary work by glossing his favorite books with marginal notes and comments

* No. I., "The Song of Roland," appeared in the October CHAUTAUQUAN.

penciled on the fly-leaves. These comments and notes were afterwards transcribed to a separate manuscript, and represented the first stage in the composition of the *Essays*. A second stage was to pass from annotating the thoughts of others to meditations on current events, matters which went on around the castle, the daily happenings of a rural existence. The third and final stage shows us the author studying himself, observing his own traits, analyzing his own mind and acts in the light of human experience. In this process he was guided and corrected by the wisdom of antiquity, Plutarch's *Lives* and Seneca's moral treatises first of all, and by the habits and customs of his fellow countrymen or the inhabitants of other lands. Here we find the perfected *essai*, the completely developed product. It was a new thing in literature. The philosophers of Greece and Rome, to a certain extent Montaigne's models, had discussed human attributes and characteristics, Plato under the title of dialogues, Cicero or Seneca under the head of moral or philosophical treatises. Yet no one of these great thinkers had used himself as a subject of investigation, as a central point around which all his observations might gather. Nor had any of them adopted so peculiar and personal a style. The "*essai*" of Montaigne is his own creation, whether of form or of substance, and the name he gives it seems to be the first application of the word to literary composition.

Various influences.

The scope and intent of the "*essais*" are wittily set forth by their author in the preface to the first edition of 1580:

Scope of the *Essays*.

"Here is, O reader, a book written in good faith. It warns you from the beginning that I have proposed to myself no other object in it than a domestic and private one. . . . I have consecrated it to the particular use of my relatives and friends; to the end that having lost me (which they will soon be forced to do) they may find again in it some traits of my temperament and disposition. . . . My defects will appear plainly in it, my imperfections and my naïve style, so far as my respect for the public has allowed. For had I dwelt among those nations which we are told still live under the sweet liberty of the first laws of nature, I assure you I would have gladly painted myself entire and wholly naked. Thus, reader, I am myself the matter of my book."

So Montaigne would have us believe that it is an autobiography he is providing for our curiosity, not an autobiography of events, but of traits and sentiments. A glance at the chapters which follow this preface shows, however, that Montaigne does not wish to be taken literally. His "*essais*" are not confined to himself and his own experiences. They are rather a series of studies of man in general, proceeding from the self-analysis of the author in particular, who acts as the instigator and the chief model. Their titles taken at random furnish a conclusive proof of this opinion: "On Sadness," "Intention, the True Judge of Actions," "Fashions in Dress," "On Sleep," "On the Uncertainty of Our Judgments," "On Odors," "On the Affection of Fathers for Their Children," "On the Post," "On Physiognomy," and the like. Many of the topics are quite trivial. It is the manner of treatment that redeems these. Others, and the greater part, are serious, instructive, stimulating.

Studies of man in general.

The *Essays*, then, are concerned with the attributes, mental, moral and social, even physical, of men and not of a man. They are prompted by the interest in humanity created by the Greek Renaissance. The writers of the middle ages had treated of mankind, but in its relation to God, in its preparation for a future life. Montaigne breaks with these predecessors. It is man in contact with his fellows, man who has his three score years and ten to live out on this earth, that attracts his observation and appeals to his sympathies. Not that he neglects the consideration of man's immortality and an existence beyond the veil. One of his longest essays dwells on this question. But the novelty of Montaigne, his originality as a modern writer, consists in his discussion of the temporal side of humanity.

Prompted by interest in humanity.

Because of his attention to this side, because also of his dislike for exclusive affirmation and absolute conclusions, Montaigne is generally

Montaigne classed as a skeptic.

classed among the skeptics. His own generation, disciples of Loyola on the one hand or of Calvin on the other, looked upon the breadth of his religious views as merely a form of religious indifference. The uncertain moral of many of the Essays, the "*Que sais-je?*" ("What do I know?"), which might well be Montaigne's device, make him appear to be a champion of a doctrine of doubt. The seventeenth century considered him as such, and in our own time and country Emerson's chapter on this first of essayists in his "Representative Men" is entitled "Montaigne, the Skeptic." So it must be that the general trend of his work was toward skepticism. But Montaigne's skepticism is not the irreligion of Voltaire, nor the agnosticism of the nineteenth century. It never scouts divine truths. It does not pretend to disguise the uselessness of human activity unaccompanied by divine assistance. In that notable essay, the "Apology of Raymond Sebond," after admitting man's weakness, the vanity of his life, the uncertainty of his judgments, he sums up in conclusion:

"Man cannot rise above himself and humanity. For he cannot see except with his own eyes, nor grasp except with his own pincers. He will rise if God will extraordinarily lend him His hand. He will rise, abandoning and renouncing his own means and allowing himself to be raised and lifted by means purely celestial. It is for our faith as Christians, not for our virtue as Stoics, to lay claim to this divine and miraculous metamorphosis."

Ethical ideas.

In keeping with his religious tolerance are Montaigne's ethical ideas. Morals to a certain degree are the product of latitude and longitude. "The laws of conscience," he affirms in his essay "On Custom," "which we say are born in us, are rather begotten by custom. Each one holding in inward veneration the opinions and manners approved of and received around him, cannot neglect them without remorse, nor give himself up to them without applauding himself."

Observations on politics.

His remarks on politics reveal the same unwillingness to affirm that any one government is the best. Custom again decides the matter. The state we are born to is the one best suited to our needs:

"The peoples nourished by liberty, ruling themselves, consider any other form of state monstrous and contrary to nature. Those who are used to a monarchy do the same."

Nor would he change the laws which are in force, though they might be unjust:

"As that good and great Socrates refused to save his life by disobeying the magistrate, even a very unjust and evil magistrate. For it is the rule of rules, the general law of laws that each one observe the law of the place where he is. . . . There is great doubt whether there can be found so evident a profit in changing an accepted law, whatever it may be, as there is danger in touching it."

One day when at Rouen, at the court of Charles IX., Montaigne saw three "cannibals," really South American Indians. After they had been shown the pomp of the king and the beauties of the buildings of the town, they were questioned as to what thing they had seen which most aroused their wonder. They answered, in the first place, that so many large and bearded men should obey a child, and secondly that "they had noticed among us men who were full and gorged with all sorts of things, whose fellows were beggars at their doors, thin with hunger and poverty. And they found it strange that these necessitous men could suffer such injustice and did not seize the others by the throat or set fire to their houses." An unconscious commentary on Montaigne's own theory of government.

Training at school.

One of the interesting chapters of the Essays is the dissertation Montaigne wrote for Diane de Foix "On the Education of Children." His own training had been slightly different from the usual method of his time. His father, wishing to have young Michel draw the greatest amount of profit from the school he was to attend, took measures to have him well prepared on the practical side. He hired a German who was well versed in Latin to take charge of the child, with instructions not to speak any other tongue than the vernacular of ancient Rome. The

household servants were also furnished with Latin words sufficient for the requirements of their service, and, his parents conversing also in Latin, the boy reached the age of six without the least knowledge of his maternal speech. Entering the College of Guyenne at Bordeaux with this advantage (Latin was the daily language of the schools), Montaigne soon lost himself in the delights of Latin literature, Ovid's *Metamorphoses* especially, Virgil, Terence and Plautus. This early intimate acquaintance with some of the great poets of Rome was the foundation for Montaigne's career as a literary man.

While Montaigne's mind was nourished and gratified by the training of the seven years he spent at school, his memory of the discipline and methods of education current at the time was anything but pleasing to him. In his own system, as he plans it for Madame de Foix, violence and force should not be made auxiliaries of mental training. His indictment of the colleges of the day is most severe:

Proposed system of education.

"They are genuine gaols of captive youth. They debauch the young by punishing them before they err. Arrive at the beginning of the classes, and you will hear nothing but cries, and children scourged, and teachers intoxicated by their wrath. What a way to awaken an appetite for their lessons, in these young and tender souls, to lead them to study with a terrible countenance and hands armed with whips. . . . How much more decently decorated their class rooms would be if strewn with flowers and leaves than with the bloody twigs of willows! I would have Joy, Happiness, Flora and the Graces painted there as the philosopher Spensippus did in his school."

The principle of Montaigne would be to make learning attractive. In the case of a young nobleman—and it is for this class alone that he writes his essay—he would have a tutor of taste and tact, who should train the pupil to discern and discriminate. When lessons are assigned, a knowledge of their sense and substance should be required, rather than of their exact expressions. And the knowledge thus gained should be thoroughly digested, tested and applied. "To know by heart is not to know; it is to hold what you have entrusted to the keeping of your memory." It is the critical faculty Montaigne wishes to arouse, and he evidently has no regard for any learning which he cannot use.

Make learning attractive.

One of the best ways of acquiring this kind of education is to go out among men and visit foreign countries; not in order to count the steps on some monument or compare Nero's face on a ruin with his imprint on a medallion, "but to bring back home the disposition of these nations and their manners and to rub and polish our brain against the brain of others." The boy should not be brought up at home, at all events. The fondness of his parents would interfere with his proper physical development. And he should learn to ride horseback, and fence, and harden the body against both heat and cold. His curiosity should be kept on the alert. He should notice what takes place about him and also what happens to the men of whom he reads, "for by means of history he will associate with the great souls of the best centuries." Wide reading and observation give the surer judgment. A frost will not argue God's wrath then, nor a hailstorm a tempest, nor the civil wars of France the end of the world. If the pupil gains a just understanding of things he will not lack words to express them. And the words should be those of his own country. For Montaigne, though bred in Latin, as we have seen, thinks the knowledge of the ancient languages bought at too dear a price. "I would first know my own tongue well, and the language of my neighbors whom I would most likely meet." The chapter concludes:

Travel and observation.

"There is nothing like attracting the appetite and affection. Otherwise we produce only asses laden with books. We whip into them a pocket full of knowledge to keep, but to do well we should not only lodge knowledge in our house, we should marry her."

Montaigne's *Essays* gave their author a commanding place in French literature. The variety of the problems they touch upon—and leave unsolved—problems all connected with man and his relations to the world, to his fellow men, to his Maker, excited lasting discussion. He

Influence on French literature.

found one immediate disciple in the theologian Pierre Charron, who wrote "On Wisdom," a treatise which carries Montaigne's lack of positive affirmation to the boundaries of skepticism. Charron, in fact, poses a system of doubt, thus revealing the judgment that Montaigne's contemporaries pronounced on the animus of his work. The seventeenth century sees its great minds all occupied with Montaigne. Descartes, the philosopher, studies man as a thinking being, and postulates the methodical principle of doubt. Pascal, the evangelist, exhorts man, the sinner, to seek redemption. He is lost if he remains indifferent to the salvation of his soul. La Rochefoucauld, the pessimist, repeats in maxim after maxim that man is fundamentally selfish, seeking ever his own interest. Bossuet, the pulpit orator and defender of the faith, points out to his hearers the unique efficacy of divine grace. La Bruyère, the moralist, paints man as he goes his way through the world, seeking pleasure or his own aggrandizement. None of these authors, to be sure, used Montaigne's literary form in their study of man. That combination of diary, note, autobiography and commentary of the ancients, was too subtle, varied or elusive for their simple purpose. Only Pascal's "Pensées" bear any resemblance to the style of the "Essais."

Other essay forms in France.

Indeed the form of what we today call essays seems to be derived more from the ancients than from Montaigne, from his favorite Seneca or perhaps Cicero. This form was made classical in France by Jean Louis Balzac, the creator of French epistolary style. Between the years 1631 and 1658 several political and moral treatises appeared from Balzac's pen, all couched in full, measured and well-balanced periods, establishing the kind of prose which received in France the title of "academic." In the last part of the century Fénelon wrote essays in the modern sense, on education, literature, morals and government. In the eighteenth century the essay was much in vogue. Nearly all the prominent writers of France cultivated it, Voltaire, Rousseau, Montesquieu, Rollin, the writer on education, Vauvenargues, the moralist, and many minor authors of a philosophical or satirical bent. The Encyclopedia, projected by Diderot on the model of Chambers's, drew for its articles on the talent of the nation, encouraging and instigating essays of every nature.

Changes in style

The nineteenth century has perhaps been less prolific in the composition of this kind of prose writing. As science extended its sway more and more over literature the graceful, half frivolous, half sober essay developed more and more into a serious, learned treatise, drawing on the results of investigation and furnishing documentary evidence. In other words, from a subjective style of writing the essay became more and more objective. But the subjective kind still lives, and when literature frees itself once again from the rule of science this kind may enjoy a new renaissance. The "essai" of Montaigne, however, with its variety and discursiveness, its personal analysis and familiar lore, can hardly have a direct descendant. Montaigne's way of thinking was peculiar to himself, and his method of expressing his thought remains unique.



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THE INNER LIFE OF PASCAL.*

✕ ✕ BY NAPHTALI LUCCOCK. ✕ ✕



HE province of Auvergne has been called the Bœotia of France; yet out of that province came one of the most brilliant writers of French literature. The "Provincial Letters" and the "Thoughts" of Blaise Pascal take rank with the great Greek masterpieces, and have passed into the literature of the world.

Pascal's rank as an author.

"The philosophy of style is the economy of attention," says Herbert Spencer; while Walter Pater declares "expressiveness to be the essence of good style." Tried by either test, Pascal must be esteemed a master. He always commands what Arnold calls the inevitable word, expressing himself with precision, force and brevity. In the "beauty born" of simplicity and truthfulness he is unsurpassed.

French prose, it is well understood, is the despair of translators. It is not possible to find full equivalents in words, as one may in coins. Certain qualities are elusive. Mendelssohn would pin down butterflies until they died, that he might better study the colors on their wings; but as Goethe observed, the most brilliant effects disappeared as life vanished. It is so with translation: the accent of individuality, and a certain rare distinction of phrase, are lost in the process. The difficulty is all the greater in the case of a writer like Pascal, much of whose work was left in a fragmentary form. Still, "deep answers unto deep," and Pascal the investigator, the doubter, the thinker, the believer, is felt and understood to a good degree in whatever tongue he is made to speak. Like Dante, Pascal holds a unique place in the life and literature of his people; and like the noble Florentine, is crowned in other lands as a strenuous leader in the way of high endeavor.

Translation of French prose.

Blaise Pascal was born at Clermont-Ferrand in Auvergne in 1623. He sprang from a well-known legal family, many members of which had held lucrative and responsible positions. His mother died when he was eight years old, and his father, an excellent scholar and an able mathematician, determined to take upon himself the whole charge of his son's education. His principal maxim in the conduct of his son's education was always to let him feel himself superior to his task; and so rigid was the father's observance that he would not allow Pascal to commence the Latin language till he was twelve years of age. For the same reason, he endeavored to defer for some time the study of mathematics. Pascal was, however, a precocious youth and could not be restrained in his passionate pursuit of knowledge. As soon as he was able to speak he displayed marks of extraordinary capacity, particularly by the questions he asked concerning the nature of things, and his reasonings upon them.

Early life and education.

Before he was twelve years of age he began to make investigations and discoveries for himself. Having remarked one day at table the sound produced by a person accidentally striking an earthenware plate with a knife, and that the vibrations were immediately stopped by putting his hand on the plate, he made a number of experiments on sound and wrote a correct and ingenious treatise on the subject. He discovered the principles of geometry for himself. One day he asked his father what geometry was. His father replied, "It is a science which teaches the method of making exact figures, and of finding out the proportions they bear to each other." With this hint the boy began the forbidden study in secret, and progressed in his own investigations, totally unassisted, from the most simple definitions in geometry to Euclid's thirty-second proposition. When he was

An original investigator.

* This is the second CHAUTAUQUAN study of the Inner Life of Historic Figures in France and Greece. Fénelon, by Chas. M. Stuart, appeared in October.

PASCAL.
From the original
picture by Philippe
de Champagne, in
the possession of
M. Lenoir, at Paris.



Intellectual and
religious influences.

fifteen his studies on conic sections were thought worthy to be read before the most scientific men of Paris.

Without doubt, Pascal was largely influenced by his father in his intellectual and religious life. Etienne Pascal being himself an admirable scholar and intimate with some of the most celebrated men of science and letters of that time in France, was very ambitious for his son and took extraordinary care with him. He, to a good degree, formed his tastes, guided and restrained in a wholesome way his mental activity, established him in sound methods of study, and by inquiries and stimulating hints put him on lines of fruitful investigation. He continually held him to the highest standards of thoroughness and accuracy, and withal, firmly grounded him in the Christian faith.

Advantages of
private education.

Private education has in some instances great advantages. It insures concentration of effort and specific training of faculty to a rare degree. But it also has its disadvantages. It is apt to be too narrow; particular tastes are allowed undue influence, and frequently the personality of the teacher becomes too dominant and imposing, preventing the full and harmonious development of the student's powers and individuality. Pascal and John Stuart Mill are conspicuous examples of the strength and weakness of private training. They became intellectual athletes, but with certain elements of personality almost wholly undeveloped. They lacked the common touch which is only acquired by free and natural social contact. The isolated life is not sufficiently nourished. "Man shall not live by bread alone," nor by logic, nor by any one thing. Pascal's health was permanently injured by too great application to favorite studies. His father, according to the superstitions of the time, thought his son's health arose from witchcraft, and employed the old woman who was supposed to have caused the malady to remove it, by herbs culled before

sunrise, and the expiatory death of a cat. The charm failed to work, and Pascal was an invalid to the end of his life. Indeed, some of his best work was done when he was struggling day by day against the steady inroads of painful and incurable disease. It is much to be regretted that the father did not spare the cat and allow the boy more play.

However, the elder Pascal, unlike the elder Mill, did not neglect the religious training of his son. John Stuart Mill once said of Frederick Denison Maurice, "There are more brains wasted in Maurice than in any man I ever met." In so saying he revealed his own limitations, showing the narrow hut of his intellectual training and the small chink through which he looked out on life. On the other hand, Etienne Pascal's deepest conviction was that whatever is an object of faith is not an object of mere reason. Much less can it be subject to reason. This conviction he so firmly fixed in the mind of his brilliant son that he was never in the least shaken by the objections or the ridicule of the free-thinkers of his time. It was through parental influence that Blaise Pascal was led to distinguish perhaps more clearly than any other writer between the laws of faith and those of reason.

Paternal religious training.

A narrow escape from sudden death on the bridge at Neuilly, in 1654, exercised a decisive influence upon him. He considered the event a warning to him to break off every idea of human alliances, to renounce all pleasure and superfluity, and to live for God alone. From this time he associated himself with the Port Royalists, one of the famous religious organizations of France, and gave himself wholly to the practise of devotion, self-denial and charity.

His venture into authorship came about incidentally. For that matter, however, many important events of history have occurred incidentally. Columbus set sail for India and incidentally discovered America. Pascal wrote a few letters in defense of his friends and incidentally composed one of the masterpieces of French literature. The circumstances were these:

Venture into authorship.

In the controversy that prevailed at that time between the Jansenists and the Jesuits, concerning the doctrines of grace, somewhat similar to that which prevailed later in Protestantism between Calvinists and Arminians, Pascal was allied with the Jansenists. They were so named on account of Bishop Jansen, a leader of the party, over whose work on St. Augustine the contention arose. The Jesuits were strong enough to have the work condemned by the pope, and to have Arnauld, who published a letter in defense of the book, expelled from the theological faculty of the Sorbonne. It was during the agitation of this affair that Pascal was induced to take up the pen in his friends' defense.

Doctrinal controversies.

On June 23, 1656, under the fictitious name of Louis de Montalte, he published the first of the "Letters of a Provincial to one of his Friends." In it he ridicules the assemblies held on that occasion with a poignancy of wit and eloquence of which the French language at that time had furnished no example. In the first six letters the Provincial writes an account to his friend of the visits he has made to various persons, both among Jansenists and the Jesuits, in order to find out the nature of the dispute, and the meaning of the terms employed. The absurdity of several of these, the injustice of the censure, and the conformity of Arnauld's sentiments with scripture and the Fathers, and above all, the duplicity of the Jesuitic party, are admirably exposed. In the next six letters he lays open the false morality of the Jesuits by the recital of an interview with one of their casuists, who teaches him the maxims and opinions of their most approved writers, in their own words, which he is represented as hearing with astonishment. The remarks he is represented as making in the course of the conversation, and his additional observations to his friend, contain a complete development of their iniquity, with keenest satire, in language at once elegant, correct and intelligible to every capacity. In these letters Pascal formed his true style, and took rank at

"Letters of a Provincial."

once among the great French writers. Voltaire has remarked that the finest comedies of Molière have no more point than the former of the Provincial Letters, nor the best discourses of Bossuet more sublimity than the latter.

Effect of the letters.

The Jesuits were in dismay over the letters. The scale of feeling was turned completely against them. They wrote, they preached, they raved, they tried to laugh, to threaten, to scorn, but it was all in vain. The author being unknown, could neither be cited before the pope nor be expelled from the Sorbonne. The replies, ill-written and full of gall, were not read, while everybody knew the Provincial Letters by heart. The satire, eloquence and pleasantry of the letters moved the indignation of all Europe against the Jesuits. They were accurate in information, relentless in logic, and merciless in irony. The chancellor of France, on reading the first of them, had a fit and was bled seven times.

Literary influence

The literary influence of the Provincial Letters was quite as great and more permanent than the theological. The French language was then in process of formation, and the Provincial Letters became at once a standard of correct taste, a perpetual witness to the essential elements of good style, purity of language, simplicity, directness and grace of expression. The master principles of Pascal's method are two—sincerity and accuracy. The first duty of the writer, he holds, is singleness of aim; the second, the exact agreement of word and meaning. Thus words become living things, the sure pathway of communication between souls, whose values are known and understood. Thus "style is of the man," not something flung about him from without, like the robes of Solomon, but something springing from the life within, like the beauty of the lily, and inseparable from it. This vital quality abides in Pascal's words; not one of them is obsolete to this day. What Emerson says of Montaigne may be even more truly said of Pascal. "His words are vascular,—if you cut them they will bleed."

**Pascal's
"Thoughts."**

It was the purpose of Pascal to write an Apology for Christianity, and in the closing years of his life he noted down thoughts to be used in such a treatise. But like David, who dreamed of the temple, he was not allowed to work out the plan. The message, however, which Nathan carried to the king would apply to him: "Thou didst well that it was in thine heart," for his thoughts, isolated, fragmentary and detached as they were found, have been preserved, and like the cedar, the marble and the gold which David gathered, have been utilized by other builders. The "Thoughts" of Pascal are among the treasures of literature. They constitute, as Milton's fine phrase puts it, "the precious life blood of a master spirit." They sound the depths of human experience; they penetrate what seems hopelessly dark; they summarize what seems hopelessly obscure; they break the tyranny of time and sense and set us in great horizons. They enlighten, stimulate and fortify the soul. They carry with them the atmosphere of eternity.

In his youth, Pascal, at the summit of Puy-de-Dôme, experimented on the weight of the invisible air, proving it, by its effects, to be all around us. Later, at Port Royal, he did something of the same kind in the spiritual order, by a demonstration of the other invisible world, all about us, with its mighty forces, its movements, its attractions, its repulsions, the spiritual world unseen, yet real. One may hold a sea-shell to the ear and imagine he hears the thunder of the ocean, but in this book of isolated thoughts, one can hear the voice of a mightier deep than that which rolls around the earth. The cries of a human heart, perplexed, baffled, in the agony of mystery and doubt, are there. The Thoughts are the utterance of a soul in titanic struggle. It is as though he felt beneath the green fields of his native Auvergne the throbbing of volcanic fires.

**"Thoughts" a
spiritual utterance.**

Pascal's "Thoughts," next to the Psalms, are the best interpreters of some of our darkest moods. Our moods are many. The heart is "a harp

of a thousand strings," and only in the Psalms is the whole gamut of human experience swept. The twenty-third Psalm is the Psalm of the children, the Psalm of the women, the Psalm of good men, the Psalm of all of us when we are serene and untroubled. But the seventy-third Psalm is the thinkers' Psalm, the Psalm of the struggle and of the scarred veteran. "My feet were almost gone; my steps had well-nigh slipped." In the "Thoughts," as in the seventy-third Psalm, we hear the agonizing note of conflict and then the clear note of victory.

Some have thought Pascal a skeptic. Even Victor Cousin intimates as much. Nothing can be farther from the truth. He was a brave thinker who stated the doubts that shake the soul, sometimes with startling frankness, yet who dared to face them to the end. Job, with all his bitter wailing and explosive speech, was a true believer and nearer to God than the smooth orators who vexed his soul with ethical commonplaces. We must not mistake the shock of battle for total overthrow. Pascal fought his way upward from an inherited and traditional faith to a conquered faith. And a conquered faith is the only one that can be held at the center of every crisis, and to the end. Inherited faith, traditional faith, is apt to be knocked out of one in the stress and contradiction of human life, and unless one conquers faith for himself, in the face of mystery and doubt, he will never know the peace of spiritual victory. Just this Pascal did, and in his "Thoughts" we have some record of the process.

Pascal not a skeptic.

He always carried about with him his confession of faith, sewed into a fold of his waistcoat. From that confession we quote these significant words:

Confession of faith.

"God of Abraham, God of Isaac, God of Jacob,
Not of philosophers and of the wise.
God of Jesus Christ.
He can be found only in the way taught in the Gospel.
He maintains himself in me only in the way taught in the Gospel.
Renunciation total and sweet."

Jesus Christ teaches us that love is the fulfilment of the law, the highest achievement of human life; St. John, after a stormy life, makes love the theme of his last epistles; St. Paul also, in one of the noblest hymns of the ages, celebrates the superiority of this gift; and next to these Blaise Pascal has given the best expression to the supremacy of love, an extract from which may be given:

"All bodies, the firmament, the stars, the earth and the kingdoms thereof, are not comparable to the lowest mind, for mind knows all these and itself; the body nothing.

"All bodies together and all minds together, and all they can effect, are not worth the least motion of charity. This is of an order infinitely more exalted."

This Amiel happily summarizes when he says of another: "He has not passed from the order of knowledge to the order of charity."

There is no truer record of spiritual conflict and spiritual triumph than that given in the "Thoughts" of Blaise Pascal. He takes high rank as scientist, philosopher, author, yet a higher honor is his; for along with à Kempis, De Sales and Fénelon, he will always be cherished as one of the noblest companions of the devout life.

End of
Required Reading.



"Provincial Letters." Translated with introduction and notes by McCrie. With a life of Pascal, essay and biographical note edited by O. W. Wight. Houghton, Mifflin & Company. Boston. "Thoughts and Letters." Translated by O. W. Wight. With introductory notice and articles from all the commentators. Houghton, Mifflin & Company. "Thoughts." Translated by C. K. Paul. Bohn Library edition. The Macmillan Company. New York. "Thoughts." Translated by Lear. Longmans, Green & Company. New York. Magazine articles: "Blaise Pascal," with three portraits. *Open Court*. October, 1898. "Blaise Pascal." By W. Pater. *Contemporary Review*. Vol. 67, p. 168. "Pascal and His Philosophy." *Fortnightly Review*. July, 1897. Same article in *Little's Living Age*. August 21, 1897.

Bibliography.



COUNSELORS OF THE CHAUTAUQUA LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC CIRCLE.

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 BISHOP HENRY W. WARREN, D. D.
 J. M. GIBSON, D. D.

WM. C. WILKINSON, D. D.
 EDWARD EVERETT HALE, D. D.
 JAMES H. CARLISLE, LL. D.
 MISS KATE F. KIMBALL, Executive Secretary.

THE CLASS OF 1901.



THE C. L. S. C. Class of 1901 is now the Senior Class, and is already looking forward to its Recognition Day a year hence. The members of the class at Chautauqua this summer were an enthusiastic company and began to set their house in order for the guests to be expected next year. The "house" is their room in Alumni Hall, which they share with the Class of '93. The room has received various gifts in the way of furnishings and promises to be a cozy spot in the years to come. As each class pays a certain sum for the privilege of a permanent abiding place in Alumni Hall, 1901 is anxious to have all funds well in hand before next summer, with a snug little surplus to expend upon the class banner. The class will soon issue a letter to the members, and all interested are invited to drop a line to the president, Dr. W. S. Bainbridge, 34 Gramercy Park, New York City.



HALL OF THE TENNIS COURT AT VERSAILLES.

In almost any collection of French views one is likely to come across pictures of the palace of Versailles or the pleasure gardens of royalty in that famous suburb. But the building of all others, the sight of which stirs the heart of Frenchman and Anglo-Saxon alike, is the plain structure whose portrait we give above, the "Independence Hall" and the "Runnymede" of France.

RECOGNIZED READING.

The new plan of "recognized reading," announced for the first time last year, has been received with much favor. It has encouraged the reading of current magazine articles, editorials and books relating to the subjects of the year's study, and these have been peculiarly educative to the student because of his background of philosophic study which they help to illuminate. The same plan will be continued this year and a blank for report furnished to every active member. Special attention must, however, be called to the fact that *only reading which bears upon the required subjects for the year* can be so recognized. Miscellaneous reading on other subjects, however valuable, does not come under the provisions of this seal. Also the reports of articles in a single periodical, or even in two or three, can hardly fulfil the conditions prescribed for *both* magazine and newspaper reading. In the case of graduates who are taking special courses, all work *related to the courses which they are studying* will of course be recognized. A form for report is sent out with the C. L. S. C. membership book. Any graduate taking a special course and not using the membership book can secure the blank by applying for it.

The new specialized supplementary courses for graduates and undergraduates in connec-

tion with the studies for this year will be found on one of the advertising pages of this number of the magazine. Particular



VIEW OF IQUIQUE, CHILE.

attention is called to this announcement, as the plan embodies some new features, the use of optional books, recognized reading, etc., in which graduates especially will be interested. The new course on Russia is also announced.

THE CIRCLE AT IQUIQUE, CHILE.

On the west coast of South America, under the shadow of the Andes mountains, is the flourishing Chautauqua circle of Iquique, Chile. The following letter from the secretary gives an interesting picture of this company of Chautauquans who have the sympathy and best wishes of their North American comrades. The illustration shows the harbor, town and imposing background of the great mountain range.

IQUIQUE, May 13, 1900.

To the Editor of the Round Table:

Mr. John L. Reeder, who is at present residing in Conception, has been good enough to forward us your letter dated 18th January, asking for some information regarding our Chautauqua circle in Iquique.

Our circle is named after a missionary teacher, Mr. J. F. Roberts, who died of typhoid fever contracted just a short time after his arrival in Iquique from the States, where he had belonged to the Chautauqua circle, and I understand that he was the first person to propose the idea of starting a circle in Iquique.

We have at present fifteen members who meet every fortnight in the parlor of the English College. We expect to have our number increased very shortly.

Mrs. Emma K. Winans, of the Iquique English College, has been our president ever since the circle was started.

I can assure you that all the members have been greatly benefited by the studies of the circle and are unanimous in expressing their desire to continue the course in the future.

Yours sincerely,

THOS. O'CONNOR, Sec. Roberts C. L. S. C.

"From East to West the circling word has passed,
Till East is West beside our land-locked blue;
From East to West the tested chain holds fast,
The well-forged link rings true!"—Kipling.

Straight across the whole stretch of the wide Pacific, are the opposite neighbors of the circle at Iquique, two readers in New South Wales, two hundred and fifty miles from the sea and fifty miles from the railroad. These two Chautauquans, Mrs. Maria Traill and her daughter, Constance, are members of the Class of 1902. Their picturesque home, shown in the accompanying illustration, is in the heart of the Australian bush and is known as the Llangollen Sheep Station. Mrs. Traill writes: "The photograph gives no idea of the exquisite mountain scenery, resembling that of Llangollen in Wales. We visit all the lonely women in the bush, riding on horseback to see them. I am a member of the Ministering Children's League, under the Countess of Meath." Four miles distant from their home is the little village of Cassilis, numbering a hundred people. Its modest church, named for St. Columba, recalls that stout soul who centuries ago carried the gospel from Ireland to Scotland, and whose influence is still marching on. The Class of 1902 has no



HOMESTEAD AT LLANGOLLEN, NEW SOUTH WALES.

more loyal exponents of its motto, "Not for self but for all," than these two lone readers in the far southern hemisphere.



THE C. L. S. C. DIPLOMA.

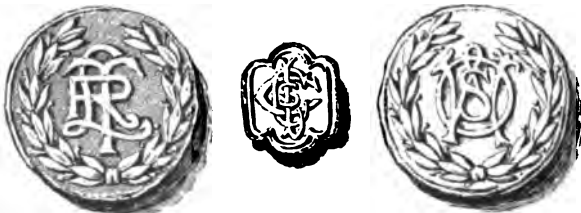
Pyramids are useful for other purposes than tombs. According to the poet Longfellow, they

"Are but gigantic flights of stairs."

That is the reason why the shadowy background of the C. L. S. C. diploma represents not the pyramid of old Egypt with its smooth sides pointing skyward, while giving no hint as to how the higher altitudes were to be reached; but the pyramid of today, shorn of its cold exterior and sympathetically alluring the modern traveler from step to step till the "vision splendid" lies before him. Like the pyramid, the C. L. S. C. diploma represents achievement; but even that is already the buried past, and as a matter of fact the unrecorded future is what this sheet of parchment chiefly emphasizes. Note the various outlines of star, shield, Maltese cross and other devices which adorn the

base and steps of the pyramid. These are to hold the seals which recognize the work aside from the four years' reading. At the base of the diploma, in the middle spaces, are usually placed the white seals given only for filling out memoranda, and so significant of much thoughtful work. The other spaces are for the seals awarded for the reading of special courses, and as there are a large number of these, a student can cover his whole diploma and yet not get beyond the guidance of his *alma mater*. As the

seals are awarded, the graduate advances into the various higher orders. When he has four seals of any color, though they usually happen to be white, he enters the



FACSIMILE SEALS—L. R. T., WHITE SEAL, O. W. S.

Order of the White Seal. In recognition of this fact a large white seal is sent him and placed over the monogram O. W. S. These large seals, however, do not count in passing from one order to another. Seven seals admit him to the League of the Round

Table, represented by a dark green seal placed upon the L. R. T. monogram. The Guild of the Seven Seals, the highest order, includes all who have fourteen or more seals (that is, seven in addition to the seven of the League). The three large monogram spaces upon the diploma thus covered leave a fourth which will probably hold a seal to be arranged for, representing the highest order of all, that of forty-nine seals.



OUTLINE OF EGYPTIAN HISTORY.

The following brief outline of Egyptian history may be of service to students of the Reading Journey, who will find it an interesting exercise to fill in the names of kings belonging to each period, with their respective dynasties, as they are met in the study of the monuments. The chronological periods are those given by Auguste Mariette:

I. THE ANCIENT EMPIRE (5000?–3000 B. C.), comprising the first ten dynasties, with Memphis as the capital. Cheops, the builder of the Great Pyramid, was a king of the Fourth Dynasty.

II. THE MIDDLE EMPIRE OR FIRST THEBAN MONARCHY (3000–2100 B. C.), comprising the eleventh, twelfth and thirteenth dynasties reigning at Thebes. Amen-em-hat III. of the twelfth dynasty was the creator of the great reservoir of Lake Moeris. Little is known of the events of the dynasties following the thirteenth and through the seventeenth. At this time through a period of four or five hundred years the country was in the hands of an invading race, the Hyksos or Shepherd Kings. Joseph's sojourn in Egypt was probably under one of these Semite Hyksos Kings.

III. THE NEW EMPIRE. (a) The Second Theban Monarchy (1700?–1000 B. C.), comprising the eighteenth to twentieth dynasties inclusive. It was the great period of Egyptian history. Among the famous rulers of this period are Queen Hatshepsut, Seti I. and Ramses II. Merneptah, the son of the latter, was the Pharaoh of the Exodus.

(b) The Decadence or Saitic Period (1000–334 B. C.), comprising the dynasties twenty-one to thirty-one (Saitic, Bubastid, Ethiopic, etc.), reigning at Sais, Tanis and Bubastis, and the Persian conquest.

IV. THE GREEK, ROMAN AND BYZANTINE PERIODS (334 B. C. to 640 A. D.).

V. THE MOHAMMEDAN PERIOD (640–1900).



THE C. L. S. C. MEMBERSHIP BOOK.

The membership book is a kind of C. L. S. C. passport. No one can dispute your standing as a Chautauquan when you are once possessed of the yearly "memoranda." Most of us enjoy the intellectual exercise of a puzzle, and the questions on the memoranda, while not intended to mystify, offer a chance to exercise at least two of our intellectual faculties. We must get clearly in

our minds what we think is the best answer to the question, and we must also write that answer so that it will be clear to everybody else. The memoranda questions might be made a very entertaining feature of the circle program by selecting for a given meeting four questions, each member bringing the answers written out. These could be read aloud and their clearness and pointedness discussed, then submitted to three judges to decide as to the best. Such a plan would give a chance to study the uses of words as well as the soundness of the ideas. To show the possible variety, we give three answers selected from last year's papers. The question was, Why has socialism gained such a strong hold in this and other countries? Here are the three answers:

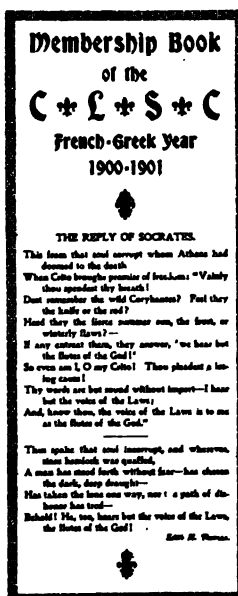
1. Democratic ideas. Political self-consciousness. Awakening of public conscience. Inadequacy of present social order. (Member of Class of 1902.)

2. On account of the great wealth of some and so many trusts and monopolies which show too great a contrast between rich and poor. (Class of 1903.)

3. The industrial revolution through inventions has changed the conditions of mechanics and workmen. Capital works mostly in the interest of the capitalist. The revolution is cosmopolitan, at least in civilized countries, hence socialism has speedily gone to all lands. (Class of 1903.)

In addition to the memoranda, the membership book includes various helps, including a condensed outline of French history from the earliest times. This will be found very useful for reference when events preceding the Revolution are alluded to in the required reading, and will enable members also to refresh their memories occasionally by taking a bird's-eye view of the whole subject. Even those who are quite unfamiliar with the history of France will find the outline so full as to give a very clear and connected idea of the growth of the nation.

Brief outlines of French literature and of Greek history and literature also present these subjects in compact form, helping the student to see every part of the subject studied in its relation to the whole.



RINGING OF THE BRYANT BELL.

The accompanying illustration shows the members of the "A. M. Martin" Circle of Chautauqua, New York, preparing to recuperate after the labor of ringing the Bryant Bell on the 1st of October. The occasion is always a festal one, and nature usually does her share. This year was no exception, and "the winds were whispering to the trees" as thirty or more members marched down the hill from their rendezvous



at the library to be joined by others at the pier. When the clock struck the first note of twelve, fifty pairs of hands seized the long bell-rope and pulled vigorously till "the hilltops caught the strain" and the echoes scattered far and wide to begin their world-round journey. A letter of greeting from Mr. A. M. Martin, for whom the circle was named, was read and then the members were photographed by Miss Daniels for THE CHAUTAUQUAN. The circle possesses a fine reference library, and as its membership is large and its talents varied, a winter of more than ordinary interest is anticipated.



C. L. S. C. GRADUATES AND THE S. H. G.

Every college bases its prosperity in some degree upon the enthusiasm of its graduates. A Yale alumnus who cherishes the traditions of his *alma mater* and who organizes a Yale club in his own town, is likely to find his sons traveling the same road and adding their strength to the institution which has meant so much to him. Mt. Holyoke Seminary has been an inspiring influence throughout the world because its graduates believed in its ideals and persuaded others to adopt them.

The Chautauqua Society of the Hall in the Grove, the alumni association of the C. L.

S. C., is eighteen years old. The seventeen hundred graduates of the Class of 1882 were its charter members, and now the society numbers more than forty thousand. The loyalty of these graduates to their *alma mater* is shown in many ways; by attendance at Chautauqua and enthusiastic cooperation in all of its activities; by the decennial gifts of each class as it reaches its tenth year, but more especially by their influence in extending the work of the C. L. S. C. in their own communities. To make the local work more effective a local S. H. G. should be formed in every town where there are half a dozen graduates. The number of these associations is steadily growing, and the following "constitution" will help those who are organizing. If you are a C. L. S. C. graduate and are not connected with an S. H. G., think over the following plan and see if you can't start a society. No educational institution in the country could show a greater number of local alumni organizations than the C. L. S. C. if every town where there are a half dozen graduates formed one. Such a society need not interfere with circle work, for the maximum number of meetings required is two each year. We hope for reports of widespread efforts in this direction.

CONSTITUTION FOR THE SOCIETY OF THE HALL IN THE GROVE.

1. Name. This organization shall be known as the C. L. S. C. Society of the Hall in the Grove.
2. Object. Its object shall be to unite all C. L. S. C. graduates in a permanent organization, which shall take a general oversight of the Chautauqua work in the community, encouraging graduates to continue habits of systematic study, aiding in the establishment of new circles and, wherever practicable, extending its influence into outlying communities. Much can be done by such an organization in lending books to isolated readers in the surrounding country, cultivating the practise of occasionally visiting circles in adjacent towns and building up a strong influence in the county.
3. Membership. Only persons holding the diploma of the Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle shall be eligible to membership in this society.
4. Dues. The question of dues shall be left to the discretion of each organization.
5. Officers. The officers shall be a president, vice-president, secretary and treasurer. It shall be the duty of the secretary of the society to report at least twice a year to the Chautauqua Assembly, Cleveland, Ohio, giving the names of the officers of the society and a statement of the work accomplished, with any suggestions which the experience of the society may lead them to offer.
6. Representation at Chautauqua. The society shall be entitled to representation on Rallying Day at Chautauqua. If its membership exceeds twenty-five, it will be entitled to two delegates; if it exceeds fifty, to three. Each delegate will be provided with a pass to the assembly grounds for the entire season.
7. Meetings. The society shall hold at least two

meetings each year. One of these shall be of a social character, at which C. L. S. C. graduates shall be welcomed into its fellowship. One meeting shall also be devoted to the consideration of plans for the extension of Chautauqua work in the community. It is

desirable that the S. H. G. keep in close connection with the undergraduate circles, encouraging them in their work, leading them to cultivate fixed habits of study and inspiring them to become graduates of the C. L. S. C.



OUTLINE OF READING AND PROGRAMS.

C. L. S. C. MOTTOES.

"We Study the Word and the Works of God."

"Let us Keep our Heavenly Father in the Midst."

"Never be Discouraged."

C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS.

OPENING DAY—October 1.

BRYANT DAY—November, second Sunday.

MILTON DAY—December 9.

COLLEGE DAY—January, last Thursday.

LANTIER DAY—February 8.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.

LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.

SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.

ADDISON DAY—May 1.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.

INAUGURATION DAY—August, first Sunday after first Tuesday.

ST. PAUL'S DAY—August, second Saturday after first Tuesday.

RECOGNITION DAY—August, third Wednesday.



OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING.

October 29—November 5—

In *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*: The Rivalry of Nations.

Chap. 5. The New Germany.

Required Book: The French Revolution. Part II., Chap. 6.

November 5—12—

In *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*: The Rivalry of Nations. Chap. 6. United Italy. A Reading Journey in the Orient.

Required Book: The French Revolution. Part II., Chaps. 7 and 8.

November 12—19—

In *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*: The Rivalry of Nations. Chap. 7. The Dual Monarchy. The Inner Life of Pascal.

Required Book: The French Revolution. Part III., Chaps. 9, 10 and 11.

November 19—26—

In *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*: The Rivalry of Nations. Chap. 8. The Empire of the Tsars. Critical Studies in French Literature: Montaigne and Essay Writing in France.

Required Book: The French Revolution. Part III., Chaps. 12 and 13.

November 26—December 3—

In *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*: The Rivalry of Nations. Chap. 9. The Eastern Question Reopened.

Required Book: The French Revolution. Part III., Chap. 14.



SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLES.

The following programs are suggestive only. Circles will of course vary them according to their opportunities. Some will find it desirable to give considerable time to review of the lesson; others will prefer to do that work at home and use the circle meeting to bring out additional points of view. *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* for September contained a number of important articles, among them "German and Russian Experiments in Cosmopolitan Education," "A New Philosophy of Fashion," etc. *The International Monthly*, published by the Macmillan Company, contains in the September and October numbers two very interesting articles on "The Expansion of Russia," by Rambaud, the distinguished French historian; and *Scribner's Magazine*, a series by Henry Norman on "Russia of Today." Where subjects for debate or discussion are given without references, readers will find by consulting Poole's Index at any library, magazine articles bearing upon the question. The nine articles on "A Reading Journey Through France" which appeared in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* last year have been bound in pamphlet form with the programs, search and review questions and bibliographies, and will be furnished for a fee of seventy-five cents. The articles were fully illustrated and will be of interest in connection with the French Revolution. Students wishing a map of Paris are reminded that an excellent one can be secured through the Chautauqua Office, for twenty-five cents.

NOVEMBER 5—12—

1. Roll-call: Items selected from Highways and Byways. (To avoid repetition a number might be given to each member and the paragraph selected could be the one to correspond, taking the paragraphs in order.)
2. The lesson on "The French Revolution" summed up by the leader in a brief review; or by successive members, each being assigned a section to review in a condensed form.
3. Character Studies: Madame Roland. Marie An-

toinette. Necker. (These should be ten-minute papers, not biographical, but character studies illustrated by incidents. See "Madame Roland." Ida M. Tarbell. "Life of Marie Antoinette." Saint-Amand.)

4. Song: The Italian National Hymn. (See September *CHAUTAUQUAN* for words. The music can be found in school singing books or in collections of national songs.)
5. Character Studies: Victor Emmanuel. Garibaldi. (See "Makers of Modern Italy," Marriott.)

6. Reading: "The Forced Recruit. Solferino. 1859." Mrs. Browning.
7. Discussion: Which is better, a monarchy or a republic, for a people not trained to self-government?

NOVEMBER 12-19—

1. Roll-call: Quotations from Pascal. (Given orally, not read.)
2. Lessons of the French Revolution: Each member should be prepared to give three facts from the lesson for the week, which seem to him most impressive and give reason for his choice. The chapters should be assigned so that some members may report on each chapter.
3. Character Study: Marat. (See references in Mathews's "French Revolution,") or Book Review of Dumas's "The Taking of the Bastille."
4. Reading: Selections from Carlyle's "French Revolution." Book IV., Chap. 4; Book V., Chaps. 1 and 2.
5. Summary of chapter on "The Dual Monarchy." By a professor or specialist in history.
6. Paper: Louis Kossuth. (See "Kossuth and Hungarian Nationality." THE CHAUTAUQUAN for October, 1894. "Kossuth's Predictions." *North American Review*, May, 1894. *Review of Reviews*, May, 1894, for full account of his life.)
7. Reading: "Kossuth." James Russell Lowell.
8. Debate: Resolved, That the establishment of small independent republics should not be encouraged.

NOVEMBER 19-26—

1. Roll-call: Quotations from Montaigne. (Given orally.)
2. Paper: The Roman Catholic Church in France in Montaigne's time. In the Revolution. And Today. (See Poole's Index for many references.)

3. The Lesson: Summary of Chapters 12 and 13 by the leader.
4. Reading: "The Flight of Louis XVI." Selections from Carlyle and others.
5. Summing up of Chapter VIII. in "The Rivalry of Nations," sections being assigned to different members.
6. Reading: Selection from "Russia" by D. Mackenzie Wallace.
7. Discussion: Is Russia justified in her present treatment of Finland? (See *Littell's Living Age*, April, 1900. *The Forum*, November, 1899. *Outlook*, Aug. 18, 1900. *Independent*, April 6, 1899. *Review of Reviews*, Vol. 20, page 592.)

NOVEMBER 26-DECEMBER 3—

1. Review of Chap. XIV. of "The French Revolution."
2. Character Study: Danton. (See references in required book.)
3. Book Review: "The Reds of the Midi." Félix Gras.
4. Reading: Selection from "Tale of Two Cities."
5. Brief reports on the several states involved in the Eastern question,—Austria, England, Russia, Turkey, Servia, Greece, Roumania, etc.,—stating geographical situation, race elements and the peculiar reasons why each is interested in the problem. (See Judson's "Europe in the Nineteenth Century.")
6. Reading "Europe at the Play." William Watson. (*Outlook*, Jan. 16, 1897.) "Hellas Hail." (*Public Opinion*, March 25, 1897.) Also "For Greece and Crata." Swinburne. (*Public Opinion*, March 25, 1897.)
7. Debate: Resolved, That England was justified in allowing Greece to be beaten in 1897. (See American and English magazines from January to July, 1897, which presented both sides very fully.)



THE TRAVEL CLUB.

In addition to the works given in the bibliography for this month, mention should of course be made of Baedeker's handbooks of Upper and Lower Egypt. Murray's English guide-book will also be available for many. The advantage of pictures in any study of Egypt is of course apparent, and in this respect a small volume entitled "Egypt the Land of the Temple Builders," by Perry (Prang Educational Co.), will be of very great service, as it contains one hundred and twenty-seven excellent half-tones. Ward's book mentioned in the bibliography contains more than two hundred and is more expensive, but covers a much wider range. For the history of Egypt, in addition to the little volume by Mariette, there is a history in five volumes (Scribner's), the first three by Petrie and the later periods by Mahaffy and Milne. For the subjects suggested in the programs, the student will do well to consult all available books, and get different points of view.

First week—

1. Roll-call: Description of objects and people of interest in Alexandria in present and former times: The Pharos. (See August CHAUTAUQUAN.) The Library. Pompey's Pillar. (See Ward's "Pyramids and Progress.") Euclid the Mathematician. Archimedes. Aristarchus. Ptolemy the Astronomer. (See Baedeker.)
2. Paper: Cleopatra.
3. Book Review: "Hypatia." Charles Kingsley.
4. Dialogue: "The Feast of Adonis." Theocritus. (See Wilkinson's "Classic Greek Course in English." Also "The Redemption of Egypt.")
5. Papers: Amelia B. Edwards. Petrie. Maspero. Mariette. Sayce. (See index to "Pharaohs, Fellahs and Explorers." Edwards. Also "The Monuments of Upper Egypt. Mariette.")
6. Reading: From above book, by Miss Edwards, the description of a typical explorer, pages 20-26.

Second week—

1. Roll-call: Reports on hieroglyphic writing. (See "Pharaohs, Fellahs and Explorers.")
2. Papers: The Egyptian Column and Capital. The

Egyptian Temple. (See Hamlin's "History of Architecture." Maspero's "Egyptian Archaeology," etc.)

3. Book Review: "The Grammar of the Lotus." Goodyear. (A large and expensive work to be found in the larger libraries. Its theory of the lotus ornament is an ingenious one.)
4. Papers: The indebtedness of Greek to Egyptian Art. Portrait Painting. (See Chap. V., "Pharaohs, Fellahs and Explorers." Also Tarbell's "Greek Art" and Maspero's "Egyptian Archaeology.")

Third week—

1. Roll-call: Reports on Customs of Old Egypt. (See Maspero's "Egyptian Archaeology.")
2. Papers: Seti I. (See "Monuments of Upper Egypt." Mariette-Bey. "Pyramids and Progress," etc.) Rameses II. (See *Century Magazine*, May, 1887, and all available books and articles.)
3. Reading: The Restoration of Karnak. (See *Scientific American Supplements* for February 25 and December 30, 1899.)

4. Papers: Queen Hatsu. (See "A Thousand Miles up the Nile" and bibliography.) Luxor and Its Associations.

Fourth week —

1. Roll-call: Reports on the Deities of Egypt. (See Appendix to "A Thousand Miles up the Nile.")
2. Papers: The Temples of Abu Simbel.
3. Readings: Description of Abu Simbel in "A Thousand Miles up the Nile," pages 303-5.

4. Papers: Assouan and Elephantine. Philæ. (See Miss Edwards's books and "Pyramids and Progress.") The Great Reservoir near Assouan. (See "Pyramids and Progress." "The Redemption of Egypt." Worsfield. "Harnessing the Nile." *Century Magazine*, February, 1899. Also *Review of Reviews*, April, 1900.)

5. Discussion: How far should modern needs be allowed to destroy ancient monuments.

REVIEW QUESTIONS ON "THE FRENCH REVOLUTION."

(C. L. S. C. Required Book.)

CHAPTER VII. THE REFORM MOVEMENT UNDER TURGOT AND NECKER.

1. Name five of the reforms instituted by Louis XVI.'s first minister of finance.
2. State the cause of opposition to Turgot and the occasion for his downfall.
3. Describe the financial condition of France in 1774.
4. What was the striking feature of Necker's financial policy?
5. What much-needed reforms in business methods and social reforms did he favor?
6. What was the chief value of his "Compte Rendu"?
7. What was the influence of Franklin upon the social ideals of the time in Paris?
8. Reasons for the ever-increasing unpopularity of Marie Antoinette?

CHAPTER VIII. BANKRUPTCY AND THE CONVOCATION OF THE STATES GENERAL.

1. What Parlement took the lead in opposition to Fleury's measures?
2. Reasons for Calonne's temporary popularity and the loss of it?
3. Who composed the Assembly of Notables?
4. What reforms were approved by them?
5. What were the two important results of their meeting?
6. Outline the history of the conflict between the government and the Parlement of Paris, 1787-1789.
7. Describe the excitement through France over Brienne's proposal to suppress the Parlements.
8. Date of the council's order convoking the States General?

CHAPTER IX. THE STATES GENERAL AND THE EVOLUTION OF THE NATIONAL ASSEMBLY.

1. What was Jefferson's view in 1788 of the condition of France?
2. Why was the proposed meeting of the States General a puzzle to king and prime minister?
3. How did the character of the people present an obstacle to wise government?
4. How did natural conditions aggravate the general distress?
5. In what proportion were the three orders to be represented in the States General?
6. Why was the election of these delegates a difficult matter?
7. Describe the *personnel* of the finally elected States General.
8. Why was the question of voting in this body so important?
9. Describe the appearance of the deputies as they marched to the Church of St. Louis.
10. What announcement did the Third Estate make when the other two orders refused to unite with it?
11. What was "the oath of the tennis court"?
12. How was the attempt of the king to dictate to the three orders frustrated?
13. In what peculiar situation did the National Constituent Assembly find itself?

CHAPTER X. THE UPRISING OF THE MASSES.

1. To what causes was the increased disorder of the masses due?
2. What was the condition of the city of Paris in the spring of 1789?
3. What influence was exerted through books and pamphlets?
4. What plan did the king adopt to crush opposition?
5. Describe the rising of the Paris mob.
6. The destruction of the

- Bastille.
7. How was the fall of the Bastille received in other countries?
 8. How did the king receive the news of the revolution?
 9. How did the tri-color originate?
 10. How was the revolution felt in the provinces?
 11. Why were both king and Assembly unable to restore order?

CHAPTER XI. THE END OF THE OLD RÉGIME.

1. How did the character of the National Assembly hinder its progress in drawing up a constitution?
2. What immediate result followed the report of the committee on "the state of the nation"?
3. Why is August 4, 1789, a memorable date?
4. How was the lawlessness of the peasants held in check?
5. What class of revolutionists was overlooked by the legislation of the Assembly?
6. Sum up the five distinct elements of revolutionary movement at this time.
7. How did the court party complicate the situation?
8. What plan arose among the Parisian leaders?
9. Who was Marat?
10. What circumstances led to the march of the mob to Versailles?
11. How did the Assembly meet the crisis?
12. Describe the surrender of king and Assembly.
13. What was the significance of the removal of king and Assembly to Paris?

CHAPTER XII. THE REORGANIZATION OF FRANCE.

1. What differences of political view characterized the five groups composing the Assembly?
2. Describe the character of Mirabeau.
3. Why did he fail to induce the Assembly to follow his views?
4. Describe the disorder of this body of lawmakers.
5. What double problem confronted the Assembly?
6. How was the principle of equality emphasized by the Assembly?
7. Why did the Assembly vote that no deputy should receive office from the king?
8. What far-reaching effect did this action have?
9. How were the administrative departments of the country changed?
10. What was the practical effect of this?
11. With what financial difficulties did the Assembly struggle?
12. When the church lands were confiscated what provision was made for the support of the clergy?
13. What radical changes did this involve for the clergy?
14. How were these resisted?
15. What changes were made in the army?
16. What in the judiciary?
17. What dangers were possible with only one legislative body?
18. What was the great weakness of this "Constituent Assembly"?

CHAPTER XIII. THE PROGRESS OF THE REVOLUTIONARY SPIRIT.

1. Describe the first anniversary celebration of the fall of the Bastille.
2. Why did Mirabeau urge the king to establish himself and the Assembly elsewhere than in Paris, and with what result?
3. What was the Jacobin Club?
4. How did its character change?
5. How was its influence felt in the provinces?
6. What was the Cordelier Club?
7. Why did these clubs succeed in holding the balance of power?
8. How did this new

revolutionary spirit express itself? 9. What futile attempts to direct the government characterized the last months of Mirabeau's life? 10. What hostile attempts were made by the friends of royalty at this time? 11. What effect did the flight of the king have upon the nation? 12. What was the "Massacre of the Champ de Mars"? 13. What was Robespierre's opinion of the Revolution in September, 1791?

CHAPTER XIV. FOREIGN WAR AND THE END OF THE MONARCHY.

1. What action by the National Assembly affected unfavorably the *personnel* of the new body? 2. What disorders attended the elections? 3. What were the chief political elements in the new Assembly? 4. Who was Danton? 5. Robespierre? 6. What outward

changes showed the growth of extreme republicanism? 7. How did the order of the new Assembly compare with that of its predecessor? 8. Why did the Girondins favor a foreign war? 9. Has such a plan been tried since? 10. Why did Robespierre and Marat oppose it? 11. What demands did the Assembly make upon Austria? 12. How were these met by the emperor? 13. Of what long struggle was France's declaration of war the beginning? 14. How did the king's use of his veto strengthen the opposition to him? 15. What strange demonstration in Paris was organized as a protest? 16. What growing dangers were presented by the foreign war? 17. What was the manifesto of the Duke of Brunswick? 18. What connection had the arrival of the Marseilles guards with what followed? 19. Describe the attack upon the Tuileries.



NOTES ON "THE FRENCH REVOLUTION."

P. 98. "*Dtme*" (deem). Tithe, or tenth.
 P. 99. "*Compte Rendu*" (kont ron-du).
 P. 102. "*Count d'Artois*" (dar-twah). Charles, youngest brother of Louis XVI., king of France, 1824-1830.
 P. 103. "*Polignac*" (pol-veen-yac).
 P. 103. "*Besançon*" (be-zan-son).
 P. 104. Palace of Rambouillet (ran-boo-yea). The former home of the Marquise de Rambouillet who died in 1665. Her salons were the most brilliant gatherings in the history of French letters.
 P. 114. "*Habeas corpus*" (hay-be-as kor-pus). A writ commanding a person having another in custody to bring the latter before a court or judge. So called from the first words in the Latin text of the writ. "*Bon-mots*" (bon-moh, the small capital N indicates the French nasal sound). Clever sayings.
 P. 116. "Jean Joseph Mounier" (zhon zho-sef moo-ne-ay). "Mirabeau" (mee-rah-bo).
 P. 118. "*Salle des Menus*" (sahl day men-oo).
 P. 120. "*Siéyès*" (se-a-yes).
 P. 121. "*Versailles*" (vair-sahye). "Runnymede." A meadow on the south bank of the Thames, Surrey County, England where Magna Charta was signed, 1215.
 P. 122. "*Brézé* (bray-zay).
 P. 126. "*Reveillon*" (ruh-vay-yon).
 P. 128. "*Brogie*" (brog-lee). "Camille Desmoulins" (ka-me-ye day-moo-lan). "St. Bartholomew's bell." On the morning of Sunday, August 24, 1572, the day of the festival of St. Bartholomew, the bell of the church of St. Germain l'Auxerrois, opposite the east end of the palace of the Louvre, gave the signal for the attack upon the Huguenots.
 P. 129. "Champ de Mars" (shahn duh mars). Field of Mars. "Cincinnatus" A celebrated Roman patriot, patrician, and dictator who was cultivating with his own hands a small farm when elected consul 457 B. C.—A member of the society established in the United States in 1783 to perpetuate friendship among officers of the Revolutionary army.
 P. 130. "*Flesselles*" (flay-sel). "Hôtel des Invalides" (oh-tel day zan-vah-leed). An asylum for veteran and invalid soldiers. It was planned by Henri IV. and begun by Louis XIV. The present building is one of the chief ornaments of Paris. The magnificent mausoleum of the first Napoleon is connected with it.
 P. 131. "De Launay" (duh loh-nay) "Monsieur Caussidière" (mon-syer koh-sid-ee-e'er). "Santerre" (sau-tair). "St. Antoine" (san tan-twahn).
 P. 132. "Thuriot de Larosière" (too-re-oh du lah-ro-ze-e'er).
 P. 134. "Foulon" (foo-lon). "Berthier" (be'er-te-ay). "Museum Carnavallet" (kar-nah-val-ay).

This museum, which is chiefly devoted to memorials of the Revolution, occupies the hôtel once the residence of Mme. de Sévigné.

P. 139. "*Vicomte de Noailles*" (vee-kont duh noh-ah-ye). "D'Aiguillon" (day-guee-yon).

P. 140. "*Mortmain*." Inalienable tenure of possession.

P. 141. "*Dauphiné*" (doh-fee-nay). "Rouen" (roo-on).

P. 142. "*Marat*" (mah-rah). "Danton" (dahN-ton). "Jacobin" (jac-oh-bin).

P. 144. "*Wilberforce*." An eminent English philanthropist and statesman who devoted his energies to the abolition of the slave-trade. 1759-1833.

P. 145. "*L'Ami du Peuple*" (lah-mee deu puh-ple). Friend of the people.

P. 146. "*Maillard*" (may-yar).

P. 151. "*D'Esprémesnil*" (day-pray-me-neel).

"Malouet" (mal-oo-ay). "Talleyrand" (tah-lay-ron).

"Dupont" (doo-pon). "Lameth" (lah-may).

"Barnave" (bar-nahv). "Robespierre" (robes-pyair).

"Petion" (pay-tee-on). "Buzot" (boo-zoh).

P. 154. "Romilly" (roh-me-ye).

P. 158. "*Procureur-général-syndic*" (prok-oor-ur-zhay-nay-ral-san-dic). Attorney-general.

P. 159. "Caisse d'Escompte" (case des-kont).

P. 160. "*Assignats*" (as-seen-yah). So called because the public lands were held to be assigned or pledged in payment of these notes.

P. 161. "*Avernus*." The infernal regions of the ancients.

P. 163. "Vendée" (von-day).

P. 169. "Jales" (zhah).

P. 171. "Feuillants" (fuh-yon).

P. 172. "Cordelier" (kor-duh-leer). "Hébert" (ay-be'er).

"Legendre" (luh-zhondr).

P. 174. "Avignon" (ah-veen-yon). "Glacière" (glah-see-e'er).

P. 176. "Montmorin" (mon-mor-an).

P. 177. "Sainte Meusould" (sant muu-oo).

"Varennes" (vah-ren).

P. 181. "Rabaut St. Étienne" (rah-bo san-tay-tienne).

P. 183. "Émigrés" (aim-e-gray). Montpellier (mon-pell-yea).

P. 187. "Litterateur." One who is by profession engaged in literature. A literary man.

P. 190. "Duke of Condé." Born 1736, died 1818. Louis J. de Bourbon, French general; royalist refugee; served in Austrian and Russian armies.

P. 195. "Dumouriez" (du-mu-ryea).

P. 197. "Vergniaud" (vair-nyo).

P. 200. "Faubourg" (fo-boor).

TOPICS OF THE HOUR.*

WITH CURRENT EVENTS PROGRAMS.

[Note.—In the daily deluge of books and articles the average reader is hopelessly overwhelmed. Complete lists of references to current magazines and recent volumes are of value only to specialists. The busy person who wishes to be reasonably conversant with the leading questions of the day has no time for wide reading, and is too likely to be discouraged by an exhaustive "bibliography." THE CHAUTAUQUAN will seek to serve its subscribers by calling attention each month to a list of representative books, and typical articles which deal with the different phases of some one topic of current interest. The Current Events Programs are prepared for the use of clubs, college and other literary societies, women's clubs and organizations desiring direction for current events courses.]

II.—TRUSTS.

INTRODUCTORY. Many of the references here given appeared in this magazine before the plan of suggesting Current Events Programs had been adopted. Besides the Civic Federation Report of the Chicago Conference on Trusts mentioned below the investigator may refer to several timely and valuable compilations of recent date. The American Academy of Political and Social Science, New York, publishes a 208 page report of addresses at the fourth annual meeting, under the title "Corporations and Public Welfare." "Trusts or Competition," another exhaustive compilation (304 pages) edited by A. B. Nettleton is published by Leon Publishing Company, Chicago. In libraries should be found "House Document No. 476" of the United States Industrial Commission, and its preliminary report of 1900 in two volumes. The Division of Bibliography of the Library of Congress issues an exceedingly valuable "List of Books (with references to periodicals) Relating to Trusts," by A. P. C. Griffin.

- Baker, C. W. "Monopolies and the People." (New York, Putnam, 1890; \$1.00.) ("Questions of the Day.") A fair-minded discussion of the nature of monopolies and trusts, their advantages and disadvantages, with conclusion in favor of government control as being a just and practical remedy. List of trusts in 1890. (See also Halle, Easley, Smith.)
- Beach, C. F., Jr. "Legislation in Restraint of Trade." (*American Journal of Sociology*, May, 1896.) Judicial decisions as to statutes relating to monopolies and trusts in England and America; futility of such as are not in line with sound public policy.
- Beach, C. F. "Treatise on the Law of Monopolies and Industrial Trusts." (St. Louis Central Law Journal Co., 1898; \$5.50.) Introduction contains interesting account of monopolies in ancient and mediæval times, especially in England. A valuable legal treatise, but in the main too technical for the general reader.
- Bliss, W. D. P. "Encyclopedia of Social Reform." (Articles: "Trusts," "Monopolies," "Standard Oil Monopoly," "Plutocracy.") Gives opposing views and contains a great deal of information about the nature, advantages and disadvantages, number and power of trusts in the United States.
- Bryce, Lloyd. "The Trust and the Workingman." (*North American Review*, June, 1897.) Shows the great increase of wages as compared with prices, and maintains that the trust helps to keep wages high as compared with prices and to prevent labor troubles.
- Dodd, S. C. T. "Combinations; Their Uses and Abuses," with a history of the Standard Oil trust. (New York, G. F. Nesbitt, 1894; 45 pp.) A defense of the Standard Oil Company by its solicitor.
- Easley, R. M., secretary of the Civic Federation of Chicago, editor. "Report of Chicago Conference on Trusts." (Chicago Civic Federation, 1899; \$1.00.) Discusses the trust from many points of view. Mr. Bryan's speech advocating control by joint action of the national and state legislatures. Mr. Cochran's speech advocating legislation in favor of publicity of accounts and prevention of discrimination in rates.
- Papers of Professors Brooks, Adams, Jenks and Clark, practically agreeing with Cochran. Other speeches favoring drastic repressive legislation.
- Ely, R. T. "Monopolies and Trusts." (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1900; 273 pp.) Analysis of present-day idea of monopoly; classifies monopolies, and assigns causes for their origin and growth; suggests remedies for trust evils.
- Flint, C. R. "Industrial Organization." (*Cassier's Magazine*, September, 1899.) A fair discussion by a successful trust organizer of the methods, benefits and dangers of trusts. Maintains that the balance of trade so much in favor of the United States in recent years has been made possible by the centralization of capital. (See also Thurber, Flower.)
- Flower, Roswell P. and Chauncey M. Depew. "Modern Industrial Combinations." (*Munsey*, July, 1899.) Flower explains in a simple way how it is possible for trusts to increase consumption, decrease prices, increase and steady wages and promote prosperity generally; also that competition is always active, or potentially active. Depew adds that the trust is now on trial and will thrive or perish according as it serves the people well or ill. (See also Halle, Easley, Holt, Bryce, Willoughby, Flint.)
- Forrest, J. D. "Anti-Monopoly Legislation in the United States." (*American Journal of Sociology*, January, 1896.) Development of anti-trust sentiment as expressed in constitutions, statutes and decisions from colonial times to date.
- Forrest, J. D. "Control of Trusts." (*American Journal of Sociology*, September, 1899.) Reasons for the inefficiency of anti-trust legislation; economic advantage of trusts. Remedies: graduated income tax, publicity.
- Giddings, F. H. "Persistence of Competition." (*Political Science Quarterly*, March, 1887.) Forceful presentation of facts and arguments which go to prove that competition cannot be suppressed and will always act as a check on trusts.
- Giddings, F. H. "Democracy and Empire." (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1900; 363 pp.) Pages 135-164 discuss trusts and their relation to the public.

* "Party Government in England, France and the United States" appeared in October.

Halle, Ernst von. "Trusts or Industrial Combinations and Conditions in the United States." (New York, Macmillan, 1895; \$1.25.) Careful study of the history and methods of trusts in the United States and of attempts to control them; their connection with the tariff and politics. Remedies: repeal of unwise legislation, civil service reform, publicity. Appendix contains a very full bibliography and valuable illustrative documents.

Holt, Byron W. "Trusts: the Rush to Industrial Monopoly." (*Review of Reviews*, New York, June, 1899.) Estimates that there were on May 20, 1899, five hundred trusts in the United States and five hundred other agreements having the effect of trusts. List of trusts with a capital of over ten million dollars. Describes the methods of the "promoters" of trusts. Believes that trusts have not lowered prices. Account of some famous trusts. (See also Halle, Lloyd, Baker.)

Jeans, J. S. "Trusts, Pools, and Corners." (London, Methuen, 1894; .65.) An account of trusts in England both in medieval and modern times. Special account of leading trusts in England and America.

Jenks, J. W. "Capitalistic Monopolies and Their Relation to the State." (*Political Science Quarterly*, September, 1894.) Conservative discussion of the wastes of competition, possibility of state control to prevent discriminations, etc. See also "The Trust Problem," new book by same author. McClure, Phillips & Co.

Lloyd, H. D. "Wealth Against Commonwealth." (New York, Harper, 1894; \$2.50.) A brilliant and forceful indictment of the trust; largely devoted to showing up the Standard Oil Co.; eight-page list of articles controlled by trusts; regarded as one-sided.

Macfarland, Henry. "Must the Trust be a Presidential Issue?" (*Review of Reviews*, New York, September, 1899.) Advises the Republicans to forestall the trust issue by proposing an amendment to the constitution. (See also Halle, Lloyd, Bliss.)

Macrosty, H. W. "Growth of Monopoly in British Industry." (*Contemporary Review*, March, 1899.) Showing the United States has no monopoly on the trust, and that employees may be taken into the trust.

Newcomb, H. T. "Railways and Industrial Combinations." (*Guntton's Magazine*, November, 1899.) Shows the strong incentives to discrimination in rates in the case of competing roads and recommends that restrictions against pooling be removed. (See also Halle and Lloyd; Bliss, Baker.)

Sayers, J. D. "Anti-Trust Legislation." (*North American Review*, August, 1899.) Defends the recently passed anti-trust law of Texas. The trust a public enemy and to be treated as such. Believes that the tariff and the gold standard are mainly responsible for the present prevalence of trusts. (See also Halle, Easley, Smith.)

Smith, E. A. "Trusts." (*THE CHAUTAUQUAN*, July, 1899.) History of trusts in the United States. Advantages and disadvantages of trusts. New Jersey the home of the trust. Remedies: uniform legislation, amendment of tariff laws, publicity. (See also Halle, Bliss, Sayers.)

Thurber, F. B. "Organization of Industry." (*Arena*, September, 1899.) Very favorable to the trusts. Owing to trusts prices have declined, wages increased and general prosperity advanced. Small investors must beware of the trust promoter. Competition continually reasserts itself to protect the consumer. Centralization of industry rapidly progressing in European countries. Centralization and the inventive genius of our people promise well for our foreign trade.

Willoughby, W. F. "Concentration of Industry in the United States." (*Yale Review*, May, 1898.) Shows steady process of concentration and argues that such concentration increases wages, steadies employment, and improves the environment of the working classes. (See also Halle, Holt, Jenks.)

New York Joint Committee of the Senate and Assembly appointed to investigate trusts. Report. (Albany, State Printer, 1897.) Deals mainly with the trusts in sugar, soda, tobacco, wall-paper, coal and rubber. Valuable but not conclusive evidence as to the relation of trusts to the following: increase of production and consumption, prices, wages, displacement of labor, mysterious and wonderful methods of trust bookkeeping. (See also Holt, Jenks, Willoughby.)

CURRENT EVENTS PROGRAMS.

First week—

Declaration: Extracts from Wendell Phillips's "The Scholar in a Republic," or his speeches of September 14 and December 7, 1871, on "The Labor Question." (From "Wendell Phillips; The Agitator," Funk & Wagnalls Co.)

Essay: (1) Review of United States Supreme Court decisions against trusts. (2) Analysis of national party platform planks on trusts in 1888, 1892, 1896 and 1900.

Oration: (1) Corporations in modern civilization. (2) The evolution of the trust.

Debate: Resolved, That the abolition of trusts would do more economic harm than good.

- (a) Two affirmative.
- (b) Two negative.

Second week—

Declaration: Extracts from W. Bourke Cockran's address before the Chicago Conference on Trusts, September 15, 1899. (Civic Federation Report.)

Essay: (1) What is a trust? (2) Abstract of Sherman anti-trust law. (3) The growth of industrial combinations in the United States.

Oration: (1) Trusts vs. individual liberty. (2) The industrial rivalry of nations.

Debate: Resolved, That trusts are not properly a political issue.

Third week—

Declaration: (1) "His Own Labor." (From "In This Our World." By Charlotte P. Stetson. Small, Maynard & Co.) (2) Extracts from "Between Elections": Chapter II. of "Practical Agitation." By John Jay Chapman (Scribner's).

Essay: (1) The language of trusts (Compile and define as clearly as possible current terms like "corporation," "combine," "capitalization," "watered stock," "promoter," "over production," "national monopoly," etc.) (2) Monopolies in foreign countries.

Oration: (1) Quacks on trusts. (2) Private monopoly vs. public ownership.

Debate: Resolved, That discrimination by transportation companies is more prolific of trusts than a protective tariff.

Fourth week—

Declaration: Peroration of W. J. Bryan's address before the Conference on Trusts at Chicago September 16, 1899. (Civic Federation Report.)

Essay: (1) Review of state legislation against trusts. (2) The relation of trusts to socialism.

Oration: (1) Trades-unionism and trusts.

Debate: Resolved, That regulation by the state is preferable to public ownership as a remedy for evils of industrial combinations.

BOOK COMMENT.

HOW BOOKS ARE MADE AND SOLD THROUGH CLUBS.

Probably no man in the business world is more widely known than John Wanamaker. His two immense stores, in Philadelphia and New York, are magnificent monuments of his genius. There is hardly an intelligent home in the land that has not heard of this prince of merchants. One of his recent and most magnificent successes has been achieved in the Book World. For four years the Book Departments of his two immense stores have been working on an enterprise of considerable magnitude, perfecting an organization which will enable the book-loving public to line their book-shelves with fine editions of the most important works — buying them at about *one-half* the usual prices, and paying in little monthly payments scattered over the better part of two years. So far, their operations under this plan have put nearly two and a quarter millions of dollars, cash, into the pockets of their Book-Club members — that is, if you reckon a dollar saved as a dollar earned — to say nothing of the convenience afforded them by easy terms of payment.

To understand how this can be done without violating sound business principles, you must realize that there are two separate kinds of cost in book-making: first, there's the cost of getting ready to make a book; second, there's the cost of actually making it. The former includes money paid for authorship, for setting type and making plates and illustrations, and it foots up precisely the same total, no matter whether you're getting ready to make a hundred copies or a hundred thousand copies of the book in question. The latter, the actual cost of making the book itself — such things as paper, printing, binding, and so forth, after the "getting ready" costs are paid — is always much the smaller of the two. Take the average book which you buy at retail for \$1.50 for example: Less than one-fourth of the ACTUAL COST of that piece of merchandise is for the book itself — the paper, binding and labor represented in it;

the other three-fourths is for authorship, typesetting and other expenses which come under the head of "getting ready." And the reason that the "getting ready" cost on each copy of the book is so large is because most books (in the usual way of marketing them) sell only to the number of a few thousand copies, so that the publisher must spread the big "getting ready" cost pretty thickly over these few thousands in order to come out with even a small profit on a common-sized edition.

In the ordinary way of book buying you're heavily taxed just because you're one of a FEW buyers from whom the publishers must get back ALL his costs and ALL his profits, too.

That is where the Wanamaker Club plan comes in: IMMENSE editions of fine books are bought for the clubs, knowing that the tens of thousands of members will quickly take them off their hands. This makes a money saving in two directions: first, it spreads the big "getting ready" share of the expense out THIN over an edition of MANY THOUSANDS, reducing that part of the cost to a minimum; and second, it permits the printing and binding to be ordered in tremendous quantities, sometimes employing the whole capacity of a large bindery for months at a time on one book alone, and thus effects another big saving. The result is an offer to club members of the MOST VALUABLE BOOKS (the sort where the "getting ready" cost is always greatest) at a price that averages about ONE-HALF THE REGULAR SELLING FIGURES.

You pay \$1.00 as a club fee to become a club member and secure this price saving. You then pay for the books in small monthly payments after you have received them.

Lydekker's Natural History, with all its beautiful colored plates, and Ridpath's History of the World, the best historical reference history in existence, are now offered to book lovers on this club idea plan. See announcements among book advertisements on pages iv. and v.

NEWS FROM THE CIRCLES.

THE LEADERSHIP OF A CIRCLE.

One of the first problems which besets the newly-formed circle is the question of leadership. Now, although leaders, like poets, are doubtless born and not made, almost every intelligent mortal has some latent abilities in this direction; and since the chief function of a circle is "self-education," its members are more than likely to discover unknown talents in their midst. Here, for instance, is a circle in a fair-sized town. One of several things may happen. They may be fortunate in securing an able leader—perhaps a minister, teacher or a cultivated woman. The possible weakness of this plan is that the circle will put too much work upon the leader, and if anything happens to him will be unable to recover from the loss. If they can guard against this danger by counseling with him and sharing the responsibility, the arrangement is quite an ideal one.

Another plan more practicable for most circles is to secure a leader for each book,—if possible, a specialist. Many a teacher or other busy person would gladly teach, for a few months, a subject with which he was familiar, when he could not give his time for a whole year. The teacher in this case would not be the president, but would have charge only of his own subject. This plan makes possible a good deal of sub-division. A leader for "The French Revolution" and another for "The Rivalry of Nations" would each be allowed so much time for his subject and would devise his own methods of review.

But perhaps our typical circle is so situated that it must fall back entirely upon its own resources. This is not the worst evil that can befall it, and surprisingly good results have happened in such cases. One secret of success is to distribute the responsibility. Have a program committee of three or four to arrange the programs for two months ahead. Let one of these take charge of the roll-call and see that the duties of each member are clearly understood. The suggestions in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* may be used, or others added. Since a teacher cannot be secured for each book, let the committee arrange plans of review to be carried out during the eight meetings of the two months. The selection of suitable music and appropriate readings and book reviews also belongs to this committee, and if they devote themselves enthusiastically to the work of leadership for one or two months,

the circle cannot fail to be interesting, and the succeeding committee will be put upon its mettle to live up to their standard. Finally, it is of course to be understood that every member of the circle is to be a working member and do cheerfully to the best of his ability the duties assigned. Under such a régime even circles which approach the work with serious misgivings are quite sure to be happily surprised at the result.



THE FAR WEST.

The first C. L. S. C. circulars published in 1878 announced the annual ringing of the Bryant Bell on October 1 as the call to study for all Chautauquans, and added "Wherever they may be, true Chautauquans can hear its echoes." Perhaps the fact that the Houghton Circle of Oakland, California, were true Chautauquans from the outset accounts for their more than twenty years of splendid effort and the following announcement in an Oakland paper, which may fitly be taken as the first greeting of the year:

The Houghton Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle will respond here to the great Bryant bell rung at the mother Chautauqua, New York, by meeting their members and friends at 957 Broadway, room 24, on Monday evening, October 1, at eight o'clock for the purpose of reorganization for the coming year's reading.

At San José three plans of work are formulated which promise to result in as many different circles. The first is a circle for the undergraduates, the second is a partial course for some who do not feel quite up to the full course,—a very excellent plan and very possible under the new arrangement of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*, which now provides several systematic and complete courses in itself. Such readers can always be credited with this work towards the C. L. S. C. diploma and so can take the full course in time, but on a more leisurely and even less expensive basis than the full course. The last suggestion of the San José Circle is for a graduates' organization. We are glad to note this auspicious sign of the times, for a local Society of the Hall in the Grove can do valiant service in a community. (See plans elaborated in the current number of the Round Table.) A new circle reports from Daggett—a little company of married women "with the usual household occupations" who wish to form a circle for mutual improvement. We hope the circle will hold an occasional evening meeting and take in

PRIMITIVE METHODS: ARE WE STILL OLD FASHIONED?

Girls were known for their handiwork in grandmother's day, and it was a sorry maiden who had reached the marriageable age without a complete set of bedding and linens. Almost as soon as the little fingers could use a needle, we began patching up our pretty stars and squares, and adding bright corners; and such frolics as we would have later on at the merry quilting bees. Nor did we neglect the more tedious making of sheets and pillow cases. Often we would spin the thread and weave the muslin with our own fingers, then the careful cutting by a thread and the fine hemming by hand, for we had no sewing machines in those days, and ready-made sheets and slips were undreamed of. Up with the lark and as busy as the bee was our motto, for there was plenty of work to keep the nimble fingers going all day long. What with our sewing machines, and washing machines, and big stores of today, I am wondering how girls would get along if they were put back in grandmother's day.

But there are many women living today who pay but little attention to our nineteenth century progress; and particularly is this noticeable among a certain class of housewives, who, in their endeavor to be over particular, return to the primitive methods of a hundred years ago. Every once in a while some household fanatic will raise a hue and cry against the prevailing soaps and washing powders, advocating the old-fashioned soft soaps our grandmothers used, and straightway, like a brood of cackling geese, her followers will waddle into the kitchen to make soft soap. Economy is another bugbear that works devastation, for of the thousands of women who have at one time or another tried to make home substitutes for furniture, and such monstrosities, have a dozen landed on the right side of expense?

When it comes to the making of such articles as sheets and pillow cases, the average woman had better use a little common-sense judgment. These goods can be bought today at about what the raw material would cost, and they are far better made than ninety-nine out of a hundred women could do them, to say nothing of the saving of time and worry to the overworked housekeeper. There is nothing strange in the fact that you can buy the ready-made article at very little, if any, advance on the cost of the materials, when you stop to consider

that in the large manufactories steam and electric power take the place of your hand labor, thus turning the work out at lightning rapidity. The Defender Company, in particular, has the work done entirely upon their own premises, by skilled women of many years' experience, which in itself is a great advantage over home-made work, and the sanitary condition of the factory is perfect, the strictest cleanliness being observed in every department; therefore, when the goods are finished they are ready for immediate use.

The great majority of housekeepers *cut* their sheets, and there are few women who can cut accurately by a thread; as a consequence, when the sheets are done up, they will pucker and pull askew. Most of the ready-made sheets and pillow cases are *cut* instead of *torn*; all of the Defender Company's brands are *torn*. This secures a straight hem running with the grain of the goods, which launders to the entire satisfaction of the most particular. When buying any of the Defender Company's brands, you know that you are getting a perfect article; every care has been taken in the making a folding, and every piece is submitted to the most exacting inspection before being put upon the market.

The "Defender" is but *one brand* of the Defender Manufacturing Company. Hence if you ask for the Defender Manufacturing Company's sheeting, state the *brand* you wish. If you simply request the "Defender," you will probably get the Defender brand, which is, by the way, very popular and exceedingly cheap, and a brand that has been in use for many years and is the best sheeting for the money that can be obtained. The "Palma" is a beautiful sheeting, soft, fine and agreeable to the touch. Lovers of luxurious living approve of the "Palma." The "Selkirk" is a strong sheeting resembling linen. It is very durable and is much in use in hotels, steamships, etc. The "Wexford" is exquisitely fine, and durable as well. This is the best sheeting manufactured. You will get a good bargain by purchasing *any one* of the Defender Manufacturing Company's brands. The brand is stamped on each sheet and pillow case.

Several different varieties of hemming may also be found in these goods. They are the plain hem, the hem-stitched border, also the edge with insertions and embroidery in more or less elaborate designs.

the husbands also. Masculine energy and points of view can be utilized most effectively in discussions concerning "The Rivalry of Nations." The plan adopted by one circle of having the men, as the chief newspaper readers, report on current events is well worthy of imitation by others. At Susanville the circle of five has lost two of its members by removal, but recalling the old adage of "Half a loaf," etc., they propose to make the best of it and cherish the hope of adding new members. Several circles reported by the Pacific Coast secretary did not get into the Round Table last year: Fowler, Santa Rosa, Newman and Pinnedale being among the number. We hope for further news from all these centers.

In Nevada the Prometheus Circle of Austin has already reorganized and expects additions to its number.

Monroe, Washington, is the first new circle to report from that state. Lewiston, Idaho, is also added to the list of new circles, and the I. O. U. Club of Greeley, Colorado, is already beginning to meet its literary obligations in characteristic fashion.

BEYOND THE MISSISSIPPI.

At Flandreau, South Dakota, the 1903's have a strong circle, and a new one is in prospect at Madison. The new Class of 1904 is very strong at Aberdeen, and at other points in the state solitary readers are introducing the course with good prospects of "conversions." At Beatrice, Nebraska, the circle, which held its seventh annual banquet in the early summer, is already well organized. A Society of the Hall in the Grove was formed by the graduate members of the circle, and these have taken up the special study of Shakespeare's plays during the past year, adding seals to their diplomas and carrying out the Chautauqua idea of specialization upon the background of the four years' general course. Nebraska has a fine record for graduate work, as one of the earliest and strongest of S. H. G. organizations was that of Lincoln. In Lincoln the annual sermon before the Columbia Chautauqua Circle was preached in Trinity Methodist Episcopal Church at the close of the year, and all Chautauquans invited. Two new circles are reported from Hebron and Upland, and in Central City the addition of new members promises to bring the circle membership up to at least twenty-five.

Kansas is alert with far-reaching plans for the new year. There were notable gatherings of members at the Ottawa and Winfield

Assemblies, and at the latter more than thirty from various parts of the state joined the new class. Already a new circle is reported from Burden, Kansas, and another from Jamestown. At Fall River the circle enters upon its third year with several additions to its membership. At Kansas City the course for the American Year was carried through so enthusiastically that the circle are anxious for fresh fields to conquer. At Wichita the circles closed their year of study with a "bird picnic" in the park. Numerous feathered guests, realizing that they were of unusual importance, joined themselves to the company of Chautauquans and lent their assistance to Professor Weeks, of the Southwest Kansas College, in his remarks upon Bird Study. The secretary adds:

"The letter from Mr. Allison, our Paris commissioner, was a pleasant supplement to the French Reading Journey. The usual alumni exercises were pretty and impressive under the trees, and the lunch spread in an immense circle was a popular feature of the afternoon. The serious business of the day having been despatched, our young people introduced a program of sports. There was throwing at a target, in which the ladies especially distinguished themselves, and certain extremely dignified races into which professional gentlemen of mature years entered with spirit. The first Chautauqua picnic was a success."

The Indian Territory is introducing C. L. S. C. work in addition to other progressive agencies, and the town of Chickasha reports its first circle with others probably to follow in several neighboring towns. In Oklahoma the Enid Chautauquans held a social meeting as their first formal gathering for the year and are increasing their membership.

Missouri reports a large new circle at Schell City and others at Houston and Amity, while Maysville and Carthage, both being assembly centers, have added many new readers to those already under way. At Pierce City, Missouri, a woman's club is taking some special courses of study under Chautauqua direction. At St. Joseph a Jewish Chautauqua circle is reported. This is organized under the department of Jewish studies, which is closely affiliated with the C. L. S. C. and which has outlined a most interesting course in the history of the Jews under the direction of some of the ablest of Jewish scholars. The Pilgrim Circle of St. Louis held its twelfth annual banquet in May under most happy auspices. The program under the direction of Professor John L. Fry, toastmaster, was as follows:

Piano Solo,

Welcome Address,

Miss Ruth Clark.

Genevieve Cappa.

"Not that we think ourselves worth such guests but that your worth will dignify our feast."



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Response, Miss Jane Sturges.
 "We have been friends together in sunshine
 and in shade."
 First Course—Toast, "The Idealists,"
 Prof. J. G. Burnside.
 "At learning's fountain it is sweet to drink."
 Toast, "The Realists," Chris H. Schafer.
 "The realist is proud that he knows so much; the
 idealist is humble that he knows no more."
 Second Course—Recitation, Miss Jessie Hickman.
 Address, W. M. Foyler.
 "Through clouds of doubt and creed of fear, a
 light is breaking, calm and clear."
 President's Address, Miss Mabel Gordon.
 "The memories of the past will stay and half
 our joys renew."
 Third Course—Piano Solo, Miss Ruth Clark.
 Toast, Chas. E. Waterman.
 "One flag, one land, one heart, one hand, one
 nation evermore."
 Toast, Fred Tate.
 "What need more words? Count the clock—'tis time
 to part; farewell to you, and you, and you; if we do
 meet again, we'll smile indeed; if not, 'tis
 true this parting was well made."

In Minnesota the circles at Rush City and Blue Earth City show their usual energy in starting early, and a new circle has been formed at Marietta. Graduates at Windom are doing special work in Shakespeare. At Winona the circles spent a delightful afternoon in a picnic to Fountain City, going and returning by steamer. These closing events of a year are deservedly important features of the circle's existence; for they strengthen the social bond which makes mutual effort in the work of self-education more possible and a greater pleasure. The Wesley Circle of Minneapolis are reorganizing with a membership of over thirty. Their closing meeting in June was a social gathering with a patriotic program in honor of the American Year.

IOWA.

Iowa rarely fails to make a good report at the opening of the year. A state which supports half a dozen summer assemblies naturally encourages the growth of circles. From Marion comes a report of the closing meeting in June, from which we quote as follows:

"We have a membership of forty-four, composed of women of all ages, from the young girl to the great-grandmother, and we find it a help to young and old to meet together. We closed a very pleasant and profitable year's work by giving a reception to the friends of the circle, each member inviting two guests. The reception was held in the large I. O. O. F. hall, where we meet every Wednesday afternoon. The hall

was beautifully decorated with flags and flowers in the circle colors of yellow and purple. Refreshments were served after the following program: Roll-call was responded to with quotations on birds. Piano Duet. Recitation. Vocal Solo. Impersonation. Mandolin and Guitar Duet. Résumé of the Year's Work. Vocal Solo. Recitation. Piano and Violin Duet. In connection with our regular work we have given a Thanksgiving program, one on Washington's birthday, one on Lincoln's birthday and one on Longfellow's, to which we invited our friends. We make quite a feature of current events, keeping in touch with the whole world. We hope to have all our old members next year and also welcome some new faces."

Recent letters from this circle announce the addition of a number of new members and much enthusiasm. Another important closing meeting of a social character was that of the Progressive Circle at Creston:

"The Progressive Chautauqua Circle of Creston, Iowa, met at the home of Mrs. Eckert, May 29, for their annual picnic, this being the last meeting of the year. The business meeting was preceded by a few musical selections by Mrs. E. D. Shearer and a reading by Mrs. M. Adele McHenry. After reading of reports from the president, secretary and treasurer, the constitution was read and signed by two new members, which makes a full class of twenty for the coming year. Refreshments were served on tables spread under the delightful shade of the beautiful maples which surround the Eckert home, where the birds held high carnival. Mrs. Boyles as toastmistress proposed the following toasts: 'Our Circle,' response by Mrs. J. W. Fry; 'New Members,' by Mrs. McHenry; 'Our Presidents, Old and New,' by Mrs. E. D. Shearer; 'Our Standard,' by Mrs. W. F. Strong; 'Our French-Greek Year,' by Mrs. Boyles; 'Our Farewell,' by Mrs. Slaughter. The meeting was a most pleasant one and will be long remembered by the members who were present. With a full class membership and a capable corps of officers, the prospects for the coming year are very bright indeed."

Des Moines is also a city of many circles, and the loyalty of these Chautauquans is expressed not only in their local work but in their coöperation with the assembly held in that city. Various festivities characterized the close of the American Year. The Eaton Circle were entertained at "Summit Place," the suburban home of Dr. and Mrs. A. G. Field, and are making arrangements for a



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Springs Nos. 1 and 2

**For Albuminuria
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Bright's Disease.**

Samuel O. L. Potter, A. M., M. D., M. R. C. P., *London, Professor of the Principles and Practice of Medicine in the College of Physicians and Surgeons, San Francisco,* in his handbook of PHARMACY, MATERIA MEDICA, and THERAPEUTICS a text book in many of the leading Medical colleges of the country, under the head of ALBUMINURIA, page 600, 7th edition, in the citation of remedies, says: **“BUFFALO LITHIA WATER** is highly recommended.”

Under the head of **“CHRONIC BRIGHT'S DISEASE,”** page 601, same edition, in the citation of remedies, he says: **“Mineral Waters,**

ESPECIALLY THE BUFFALO LITHIA WATER of Virginia, which has many advocates.”

“A Veritable Antidote.”

Dr. William H. Drummond, *Professor of Medical Jurisprudence, Bishop's University, Montreal, Canada:* “In the Acute and Chronic Nephritis—**BRIGHT'S DISEASE**—of Gouty and Rheumatic Origin, as well as in the graver Albuminuria of Pregnancy, I have found **BUFFALO LITHIA WATER** to act as a VERITABLE ANTIDOTE, and I know of NO OTHER NATURAL AGENT POSSESSING THIS IMPORTANT QUALITY.”

Both of these waters are powerful Nerve Tonics and No. 1 is also a potent Blood Tonic, and is especially indicated in all cases where there is Poverty or Deficiency of Blood. In the absence of these symptoms No. 2 is more especially indicated.

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class day to be held in the future. The Harriet Shipley Circle entertained the Capital Park Circle at the home of Mr. and Mrs. H. Trout, the impersonation of authors being one of the chief literary features of the program. The Wayside Circle devoted themselves one evening to a special entertainment in honor of their husbands. The ceremonies were opened with a six o'clock dinner. Gold and purple, the class colors, were effectively used in the table decorations of ribbon, and a large cluster of golden glows, the flower of the Class of 1902, was used as a center-piece. After dinner the guests were surprised at being requested to mount into a hay-rack. They were then driven to the Center street dock, where they were invited to take passage on the steamer *Lehman*. Upon the return of the steamer the hay-rack once more appeared, and amid much hilarity they were borne to their respective homes.

The Society of the Hall in the Grove of Cedar Falls, a progressive company of Chautauquans, gave special attention last year to American Literature and to Bird Study. A meeting with Dr. Cutler, who discussed "Latest Scientific Researches," gave a much appreciated opportunity for seeing an X-ray machine in operation.

The Chautauquans of Independence to the number of fifteen spent three days together at the Waterloo Assembly, thus giving their presence and support to one of the finest assemblies in the state, and returning home with new spirit for the promotion of educational work in their own community.

The outlook for the coming year all over the state seems quite as cheering as the retrospect. The old circles are sending in their orders early, and new readers and circles have been reported from Sibley, Thornton, Cresco, Clarinda and Mitchellville. A woman's club of fifteen members from Glidden propose to take up the work for the coming year, and will be heartily welcomed into the ranks of the Class of 1904, who would be glad of their companionship throughout the four years.

THE CENTRAL STATES.

The Benton Harbor S. H. G. very properly heads the list of circles from Michigan. They report themselves as "the happiest circle in the world," a state of things in an alumni which bodes much good to coming generations. Last year in connection with "A Reading Journey Through France" they studied MacMasters' splendid "History of

the People of the United States." This year they will supplement THE CHAUTAUQUAN work with Shakespeare studies. It is part of their plan to make a special feature of recognizing the awarding of seals to their members and so emphasize the complete Chautauqua idea of a diploma which shall be a record of postgraduate work. Circles in other parts of the state are renewing their membership, and a number of new organizations are in prospect. An interesting feature of Chautauqua influence in Michigan is the organization of circles under the department of Jewish studies. The national secretary of that department, Mrs. Minnie D. Louis, made a tour through the state in May, and the outlook for growth in this interesting field is most encouraging.

The Progressive Circle of West Chicago, organized in 1892, held its annual banquet in September instead of July, as heretofore. About forty persons gathered at the home of Mr. L. C. Clark, and an entertaining program was presented. An address on Expansion by Mr. C. D. Clark, and a poem appropriate to the occasion by Mrs. Lois Gregory, were especially happy features. The circle, which is a closely united body, are planning interesting lines of postgraduate work this year. At Springfield, the "Illinois" Chautauquans are chiefly of the Class of 1900 and are forming a Society of the Hall in the Grove.

The Class of 1904 has received large reinforcements from Chicago and many Illinois towns, including Harvard, Belleville, and Petersburg. New circles are reported at Taylorville, Fairbury and Cropsey, and reports are coming in rapidly from circles that are reorganizing.

Indiana circles have become specially prominent through the large number of new centers represented by the Winona reading circles which now come into the Chautauqua Round Table. In many of these circles former Chautauqua students have been working; but the changes in THE CHAUTAUQUAN and the new features of graduate study which allow an option in the selection of books enable their *alma mater* to offer special advantages which the graduates are quick to recognize. The Winona circles are heartily welcome to the goodly fellowship of old and new Chautauquans. The names already received represent a long list of towns, and detailed reports of the order of exercises of these circles will be awaited with interest. The experience of

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ASSETS, - - - - -	\$29,046,737.45
LIABILITIES, - - - - -	24,926,280.61
EXCESS, 3½ per cent basis, - - - - -	4,120,456.84

GAINS: 6 months, January to July, 1900.

IN ASSETS, - - - - -	\$1,286,225.89
INCREASE IN RESERVES (both Dept's), -	1,128,534.12
Premiums, Interest and Rents, 6 months, -	4,055,985.62

J. G. BATTERSON, President.S. C. DUNHAM, Vice-President.
JOHN E. MORRIS, Secretary.H. J. MESSENGER, Actuary.
E. V. PRESTON, Sup't of Agencies.

the Terre Haute Chautauquans is worth noting just at this time, when some uncertainty may be felt about the wisdom of forming a circle. The secretary writes:

"We did not begin until about three months had passed and we made up all the work. We studied hard, went to lectures, and got help from city, normal and high school libraries. We all have good histories, encyclopedias and dictionaries of our own, so we are ready for next year."

OHIO.

The graduate Chautauquans of East Cleveland, of whom there are a large number, organized themselves into a Society of the Hall in the Grove during the latter part of September and at once voted to start an undergraduate circle as their special altruistic service to Chautauqua. This society promises to have a brilliant career, as the quality of its membership is that which makes for progress. The president, Mrs. James McCrosky, is a "Pioneer," and the secretary, Miss Taylor, a graduate of 1900. It seems probable that nearly every graduate class will be included in its membership. Whether the society will adopt a course of study or decide to meet twice a year only, has not yet been determined, but they assume their new responsibility of leadership in things Chautauquan with energy and enthusiasm. Many Cleveland circles have reorganized, among them the Euclid Avenue Congregational Church, the First Methodist, the Franklin Avenue Methodist, and the Epworth Memorial.

Many of the circles held social meetings at the close of the past year, among them the New London Alumni with its fourteenth annual banquet, the Dayton Circle, which after an attractive program presented to Dr. J. H. Landis of the Union Biblical Seminary a beautiful copy of the life of Dwight L. Moody. Dr. Landis has for four years served as chairman of the circle, and his scholarly abilities have given a character to the meetings which has been very heartily appreciated. The East Liverpool Circle had a special program of an informal character which closed a very enthusiastic year of study. The Toledo Alumni, which held a combined social and intellectual session in May, arranged for its annual picnic in September as a peculiarly propitious time for such an occasion. Mrs. McCabe, the Chautauqua delegate, gave a report of her summer's experiences at Chautauqua, and as she is an active officer of the Class of '88 as well as of several other organizations, her views were those of one well fitted to see

and note. The study section of the alumni are to take up American history this fall. Circles at Fremont, Columbus, Dayton, Fostoria and other points are beginning the study of the French Revolution with characteristic energy, and the Worthington Circle of Springfield, composed chiefly of graduates, will study especially the literary aspects of the work of the year.

PENNSYLVANIA, NEW YORK AND NEW JERSEY.

A large new circle has been formed at Sheffield, Pennsylvania, and promises to have at least thirty members. The Knoxville Historical Society of Allegheny county are making a special study of American history and using as a basis the study pamphlets of the C. L. S. C. arranged by Professor H. B. Adams and J. A. Woodburn. At Warren the graduates plan to take up Anthropology and with it last year's CHAUTAUQUAN with the course in American Expansion. The Elm Park and Imperial circles of Scranton have already organized. New circles are springing up in various parts of the state and the list of reorganizing centers increases daily.

The New Jersey Circle at Vineland and the Jersey City (the "Beach Circle") were represented by delegates at Chautauqua this summer. The latter circle, which is very large and composed of both graduates and undergraduates, has solved the problem of a study plan by making the regular course the basis of their work, while the graduates will make excursions into bypaths and devote this added wisdom to the enlightenment of the rest. The Vineland alumni are planning a scheme of Browning study through which they are to win seals for their diplomas.

The circle at Schenectady, New York, have enlisted the services of the local press in preparing for their work, and the result is a half-column announcement of their plans, with an invitation from the circle for all interested to be present at the first meeting. A large circle at Rush worked all through the year, but sent in their enrolment fees late in June, so they are just coming into the Class of 1903. This circle, which averaged nearly thirty in attendance, was organized by Rev. H. Clay Milliman, formerly a pastor in Buffalo, where he was equally successful in leading his people in paths of literary culture. The Brooklyn alumni have a full program for their first October meeting, reports from delegates to Chautauqua, "vacation notes" and plans for the new year receiving thoughtful attention.

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The Bryant Circle of Sea Cliff, the circles at Westtown, Mt. Vernon, Morrisville, Jamaica, Flatbush, Highland, Watkins, Antwerp, Olean, Binghamton, and at scores of other places are already at work and the state promises to be more than usually active.

NEW ENGLAND.

Three early circles report from Vermont: Charlotte, Rutland and Montpelier. The latter is a graduate circle and takes up the new Russian course. Twenty members have entered upon the work with zeal, and the facilities offered by the new pamphlet will give them full play for their energies. The August reunion of the Belfast, Maine, Circle is usually planned when two former members now connected with the Keep Pace Circle of Waltham, Massachusetts, make their annual visit to their old home. This year the festivities were held on August 28. The classes from '85 to '98 were represented, and each member wore the emblem of her own class. The program included responsive readings, singing of Chautauqua songs, letters from absent members, a summary of the circle's fifteen years of life, a report of the Chautauqua Assembly and around the festive board the usual reminiscences which such a gathering calls forth. The circle, true to its traditions, sends the names of three new members for the Class of 1904. Massachusetts shows a growing interest in things Chautauquan. Circles at South Chelmsford and at Barre are the advance messengers of the new class. The Hurlbut Circle of East Boston knows no diminution of its ardor, and in many other parts of the state the Chautauqua fire has long burned with steady assurance. Connecticut is experiencing a revival due to the new assembly at Plainville. Large circles at Waterbury and Seymour and a great increase of membership at Derby are the immediate results, while C. L. S. C. reading plans are being agitated in many directions. The New Haven circles keep up a flourishing organization under the New Haven union, which held its closing public meeting in June under very happy auspices.

THE SOUTH.

Reports from the south cover a wide territory, but it is too early for details. The Okolona, Mississippi, Chautauquans of the Class of 1902 show a persistence, in spite of hot weather, which speaks well for their literary aspirations. They write in August: "We are doing good work and will soon

send in our examination papers. We grow more enthusiastic the farther we progress." In Troy, Alabama, the members are claiming their certificates for the completed year's work. The Augusta, Georgia, Circle has made an early start. Texas, West Virginia, Tennessee, Virginia, Kentucky, and North Carolina have all been heard from, and in Washington, D. C., a new circle of twenty-three members has joined the Class of 1904. That the C. L. S. C. reaches other organizations besides its own circles is shown in the case of the Jenkinsville, South Carolina, Literary Club, which has a circulating library for its members and each year includes a set of the Chautauqua books.



ANSWERS TO SEARCH QUESTIONS.

"THE RIVALRY OF NATIONS."—OCTOBER.

1. The Monroe doctrine was a scheme of public policy set forth by President James Monroe in his message to congress, December 2, 1823. It declared that henceforward the American continents were "not to be considered as subjects for future colonization by any European power." 2. 1789-1799. 3. Christmas day, 800. 4. Charlemagne. 5. The Sultan of Turkey. 6. In 1854, at Balaklava. 7. George III., the Prince of Wales acting as regent; 1820, George IV.; 1830, William IV.; 1837, Victoria. 8. William E. Gladstone. 9. From King John, in 1215. 10. At St. Helena, in 1821. 11. 1871, Louis Adolphe Thiers; 1873, Marshal MacMahon; 1879, F. P. Jules Grévy; 1887, M. Sadi-Carnot; 1894, M. Casimir-Perier; 1895, Félix Faure; 1899, Émile Loubet. 12. In 1879, the Panama Canal Congress approved the project for a tide-water canal across the isthmus of Panama. A French company was organized to construct the canal. The stock issued by the company was purchased by all classes of Frenchmen, the peasants especially investing large sums. After spending 1,300,000,000 francs, the company became bankrupt. When the company's affairs were investigated, it was discovered that a large part of its capital had been squandered, chiefly in bribes and enormous salaries. In 1893 the matter was brought before the French courts, and a number of deputies, senators, and other public officials were found guilty of bribery and embezzlement.

"A READING JOURNEY IN THE ORIENT."—OCTOBER.

1. Great Britain. 2. Nine, besides mere rocks. 3. From tanks in which rain water is stored. 4. From Tarifa, a Spanish seaport, where the Moors collected duties in ancient times. 5. Morocco, Algeria, Tunis, and Tripoli. 6. Morocco, independent; Algeria, French colony; Tunis, French protectorate; Tripoli, Ottoman dependency. 7. Mohammedan, Jewish and Christian. 8. Mecca, the birthplace of Mohammed, is the holy city of Islam. The Moslems believe that a pilgrimage to Mecca will secure entrance to heaven. 9. 41-54 A. D. 10. Stephen Decatur. 11. In 1830, after a blockade of three years, the dey capitulated, and France assumed control of the government. 12. The Pharos at Alexandria. (See August CHAUTAUQUAN.) 13. A red granite monolith near Alexandria. The name was given to it in ancient times by travelers, but the origin of the name is unknown. 14. By Alexander the Great, 332 B. C.

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The CHAUTAUQUAN



*A Magazine for
Self-education*

NOV 2 1900

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THE CONGRESS OF BERLIN.
From the painting by A. von Werner.

See page 276.

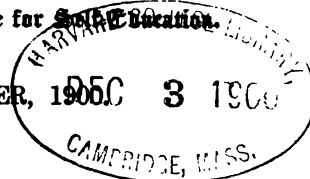
THE CHAUTAUQUAN,

A Monthly Magazine for Self-Education.

VOL. XXXII.

DECEMBER, 1905 3 1906

No. 3.



Highway & Byway



If there were wide differences of opinion regarding the "paramount issue" of the campaign, there is almost entire unanimity among intelligent people as to the meaning of the result of the national election. Republicans, "gold" Democrats, Independents, and Bryan Democrats all appear to agree that with the great majority of the people the paramount issue, as shown by their emphatic and unmistakable verdict, was the maintenance of the industrial conditions which have prevailed in the last three or four years. The overwhelming electoral majority for President McKinley, accompanied by an increased popular majority, is not an approval of "imperialism" or colonialism. Even partisan Republicans concede this. It is a second and resolute rejection of the doctrine of free coinage of silver, regarded as a menace to prosperity and progress.

The considerable gains made by Mr. Bryan in the east plainly indicate sympathy with the Democratic position on the Philippine and Porto Rican questions. On the other hand, the remarkable Republican gains in the west with equal positiveness argue the decline of the silver sentiment and the acceptance, for the present at least, of the single gold standard. Manifestly the people did not believe that the Republican policy threatened reaction and the destruction of American liberty. In the nature of things it is impossible to determine to what extent they intended to indorse the policy that has been pursued toward and in the new possessions.

What is of first importance to this republic is the general recognition of the fact that the territorial question is still open—that congress is still fully entitled to adopt a declaration pledging ultimate independence to the Filipinos, precisely as such independence was pledged to the Cubans. The fitness

of the Filipinos for the same measure of self-government that the Cubans are to enjoy at no distant day, let us hope, is strongly disputed by many, but the United States should have little difficulty in obtaining the necessary evidence upon this point. It is certain that the Philippine problem—that is, permanent annexation versus temporary control of the islands in trust for their population—will be vigorously and thoroughly debated both in congress and outside its halls. The anti-imperialists aver that their campaign is by no means ended and that the elimination of silver and other confusing issues will infuse life into their movement.

Again, it is well to remember that congress can deal with but one side of the problem. The adoption of an imperial or colonial policy must necessarily depend on the federal supreme court. In several cases now before it the question whether the constitution follows the flag is distinctly presented. If annexed territory is within the "United States" and under the complete protection of the constitution, then the Porto Rican tariff legislation is unconstitutional, the new possessions are integral parts of the union, and their inhabitants are citizens, not subjects, of the republic. A decision to this effect would make colonialism impossible. A contrary decision would give congress the legal right, the constitutional power, to deny citizenship, free trade and many other rights to the Filipinos and Porto Ricans, and we should then revert to the ethical and economic aspects of the problem. Many who now favor the permanent retention of the Philippines would become anti-expansionists if they were assured that the constitution extends of its own force over annexed territory, and that congress is no more absolute over such territory than it is over states.

Meantime leading Republicans urge moderation, conservatism and prudence upon

their party, while Democrats are calling for a reorganization and "redemption" of their national organization. The second disaster that has befallen the Silver Democracy, it is contended, should impress upon it the abandonment of free coinage, Populism and



WILLIAM MCKINLEY,

Re-elected President of the United States.

everything repugnant to the conservative element of the party—the element represented by Cleveland, Carlisle, Fairchild, Abram T. Hewitt and the sound-money men generally. The progress of this agitation will be watched with much concern. Republicans express an ardent desire for Democratic restoration on old lines.



The political party, with all the institu-

tions and accessories connected therewith, is not known to the American constitutional system of government. It is a spontaneous growth and has become indigenous and permanent. The party spirit is to be credited with much good, but it is also to be debited with much evil. In late years the legislatures of the advanced states in the union have undertaken to control and curb partisanship, to render party organizations more responsible to the people, more amenable to law and equity. The abuses of "machine" and "boss" domination have grown so intolerable in many places that the intervention of the legislature for the protection of popular rights is an admitted necessity. Accordingly we have statutes regulating primary elections, conventions, nominations and even the machinery of organization. The purpose of all these is the insuring of free expression of the individual voter's will and preference through truly representative party agencies. Only a beginning has been made, however, in this direction.

These statutes have naturally led to litigation and some noteworthy judicial decisions. Perhaps the most remarkable of these is the latest, given by the highest court of New York in the case of State Senator Coffey. He was a member of a Democratic county committee, elected to the position at a primary meeting under a

new law controlling, among other things, the choice and conduct of political committees. In one election Senator Coffey "bolted" a single nomination of the convention of his party, and he was punished by expulsion, by majority vote of the county committee. He thereupon brought suit to compel his reinstatement. He won in the lower court, suffered defeat on first appeal, but secured a reversal of the intermediate decision from the court of last resort. His victory establishes an important precedent and is regarded as a substantial vindication of political independence. The decision restricts the power of machines and rings, and establishes direct responsibility of party representatives to the voters.

The court holds that the choice of members is vested in the voters, and that no power of expulsion is granted to the committee. The law aims to protect the right of voters to be represented by men of their own selection, not to protect the majority of the committee from enforced association with a hostile or disagreeable member. It is true that the political convictions of a member may change subsequent to his election, and that he may desire the defeat of the party which placed him in control of its affairs. But the redress in such a case is in the hands of the voters. How this view strengthens independence in politics is obvious on slight examination. To remain a party leader it is not necessary, under this conception, to approve every nomination, however unfit, and every declaration of the party platform, however unsound. To object to some action of the party is not treason, and only the voters have the authority to withdraw the badge of regularity and fidelity from a bolting representative.



The Dominion of Canada has had a general election, but whereas we in the United States had an embarrassment of riches in the matter of "issues," our northern neighbors went through a brief and lively campaign without any substantial issue whatever. The Liberal party, led by Sir Wilfred Laurier, the present premier of Canada, has received a "vindication." It was prepared for a considerable reduction of its majority, which was about fifty-five in the parliament lately dissolved. It will have the same majority in the next parliament. It was successful at the polls in every province except Ontario, the heart of Toryism, where social and religious animosities were permitted to influence the course of the campaign. Most

of the Conservative leaders suffered defeat, including Sir Charles Tupper, the official head of the opposition.

Undoubtedly the Liberals have been greatly benefited by the prosperity Canada has enjoyed and by the tact displayed by the Laurier cabinet in managing Canada's participation in the South African war. At one time the Conservatives claimed to be the loyal party, while the Liberals were stigmatized as the party of disaffection and hostility toward the mother country. Now both parties are intensely loyal, and the Liberals have given material proof of their devotion by according to the United Kingdom a thirty-three per cent reduction on all imports to Canada. The Conservatives, curiously enough, have attacked this preferential feature of the new tariff and demanded a *quid pro quo* from the mother country. The tariff in general is no longer an issue in Canadian politics, as the low tariff of the Liberals is amply protective.

Both parties favor a number of semi-socialistic measures and special privileges to various classes. The Canadians could discover no reason for ousting the Liberals, and hence the sweeping majorities for their candidates. The election insures to the Liberals a third term of office, for since consolidation and union they have been in power but twice.



The result of the general elections in the United Kingdom correspond in the main to the universal expectations formed and expressed prior to the polling. The Tory-Unionist party won, and it naturally claims that its new lease of power indicates a com-

plete approval of its policies, and especially of the South African war. This may well be questioned. The majority secured by the Salisbury government is not as large as it commanded in 1895, after the elections which turned on internal and domestic issues. Then the majority was 153; now it is 132. The membership of the House of Commons is distributed as follows: Conservatives, 332; Liberal Unionists, 69; Liberals and Radicals, 187; Nationalists (Irish), 82.

The last named group is allied with the third in the list, and the second with the first. All things fairly considered, the opposition has no occasion for disappointment, and the victorious party as little reason for exultation. The reduction of the majority shows that the South African war was not as popular as the extremists had asserted or imagined it was. Moreover, as Professor James Bryce has pointed out, the discrepancy between the parliamentary majority and the popular one is striking. A change of but one hundred thousand votes would have reversed the verdict. The Tory-Unionists are by no means strong in the country, and the Liberals not at all weak, in spite of their confused and leaderless condition. The election presented no distinct issue.



THEODORE ROOSEVELT,
Elected Vice-President of
the United States.

Even the anti-war Liberals admitted that the annexation of the Boer republics is an accomplished fact and that they must hereafter constitute a part of the British empire. The method of governing them was not discussed much, as neither party had a definite plan. China was eliminated from the campaign by common consent. The government has received no mandate with regard to any vital question, and the belief is expressed that the new parliament will prove short-lived.



JOHN BULL, THE FRIEND OF ALL MANKIND: "The Earth has room for us all."

—Jugend.

Organization of the Liber-

als is quite probable, and Lord Rosebery may again assume the leadership of the party. A speech on social and economic reforms he has delivered is regarded as the "keynote" of the new policy of the Liberals. They will devote their attention to better



COUNT VON BÜLOW,
German Minister of Foreign
Affairs.

housing of the poor, old-age pensions, and the elevation of the agricultural laborer.

Meantime the successful party has been busy discussing the cabinet changes made by the premier, Lord Salisbury. The most important change is the appointment of the unpopular Lord Lansdowne, minister of war, as secretary of foreign affairs, to succeed Lord Salisbury himself, who has resigned this office. Age is said to be the only reason for the premier's action. For a voluntary relinquishment by him of a part of his great power and influence in the government, public opinion was prepared, but the promotion of Lord Lansdowne, who had incurred almost universal reprobation for his mismanagement of the war office, was a shock and bitter disappointment even to the premier's staunchest supporters. But there is reason to believe that the foreign

offices of the great nations will find Lord Lansdowne a pleasant and amiable man to deal with, and that the policy heretofore pursued in foreign affairs will be continued. Continental Europe feared that Mr. Chamberlain, its veritable *bête noir*, would be given the foreign portfolio. It is well known that he wanted and expected it. But as he has not a friend in diplomatic Europe and is denounced by half of the people of Great Britain as a marplot and incendiary, it would have been dangerous to gratify his ambition. He remains colonial secretary, to "wind up" the South African affair. Mr. Brodrick, under secretary, has been made secretary of war, a promotion

which finds general favor. The other changes neither strengthen nor weaken the Salisbury cabinet.



A notable event in international politics is the resignation of the chancellorship of the German empire by Prince Hohenlohe and the appointment to that post of Von Bülow, the minister of foreign affairs. Hohenlohe was an octogenarian and unequal to the burdens and perplexities of the position. Since Bismarck's sensational retirement and quarrel with Emperor William, the latter has been "his own chancellor," and neither Caprivi nor Hohenlohe was able to restrain his impetuosity. Von Bülow is expected to take the initiative out of the kaiser's hands and pursue a policy more consonant with the constitutional system of Germany. The Reichstag has not asserted itself of late, and its prerogatives have been cavalierly disregarded. It means to hold the new chancellor to a stricter accountability. There will be considerable opposition to the government's Chinese program and naval expansion enterprise. Germany has grown too rapidly, and is now threatened with an industrial and financial crisis.

Von Bülow is an able and experienced diplomatist, a follower of Bismarck in the main, but without that great statesman's prejudice against colonial empire. He will continue to cultivate friendly relations between his country and her great rivals, Russia, England and France. He is broad-



EAST AND WEST.

CHINESE EMPEROR.—"I will make the expiation that heaven demands."
GERMAN EMPEROR.—"And you will also make the reparation that I demand."

—London Punch.

minded, and not entirely acceptable to the agrarians and ultra-protectionists. No great change in foreign policy is to be expected, but the sessions of the Reichstag bid fair to be quite stormy.

In assuming the reins of his high office Von Bülow invites public confidence by his diplomatic coup in arranging an alliance with Great Britain. The announcement that a hard-and-fast agreement had been concluded between the powers named was a veritable shock to Europe, and something of a surprise to the United States. The agreement has been published. It contains three brief sections. The first two guarantee the "open door" in China and the preservation of the political and administrative integrity of that empire. In other words, the contracting parties bind themselves to refrain from seizing Chinese territory by way of compensation for the recent outrages and crimes. The third clause is vague. It leaves the signatories free to change their policy in the event of territorial aggression upon China by any other power. Is this a general warning or a special hint to some member of the "concert"?

The French and Russian press has denounced this agreement as something insidious and perfidious, insisting that there are secret clauses therein directed against the other nations. It is true that there is no apparent need for the agreement, since the principles there set forth have been repeatedly and emphatically approved by every power interested in China. But there is certainly nothing alarming on its face, and the powers have all signified their ready approval of the treaty, withholding, however, any expression of opinion upon the enigmatical third clause. The settlement of the Chinese "affair" has not been hastened by this treaty. The pause continues. The foreign ministers are discussing the terms of the settlement, but nothing is published concerning their deliberations. To the Chinese plenipotentiaries no proposals have yet been submitted. The empress-regent and emperor do not intend to return to Peking. The capital will be abandoned and the seat of government transferred to an interior city.



Whatever the political consequences of the uprising in China, there can be little doubt about its effect upon the industrial development of the country. Wherever the soldiers go, railroads will soon follow, and

that, of course, will result in a great increase of trade. The cost of transportation, under the present methods of transportation in China, is so high that only the most valuable and compact products are able to pay for their carriage any considerable distance.

The use of the wheelbarrow, which on account of its ability to follow the narrowest paths and go almost any place, is the most common and cheapest method of transportation, still costs at least ten times as much as is charged for carrying freight in this country. In addition to the high cost of transportation, a still greater hindrance to trade exists in the system of



MARQUIS ITO,
Japan's Leading Statesman.

liken or transit duties which are levied upon all traffic that passes through the country. China is divided into tax districts which practically have a tariff against each other. Tax stations stand along the public roads like our old-fashioned toll-gates, at distances averaging about thirty miles apart. So heavy are these *liken* taxes, that it is rare that imported goods penetrate the country farther than the second tax station. In addition to this, there are restrictions on the moving of grain from one province to another, and on certain trades and industries, which amount to a practical prohibition of them. Thus, the mining of precious metals is prohibited except under government license, while the manufacture of salt is a government monopoly. The result of such conditions has been to make it impossible to manufacture for export, and Chinese labor has been confined to its limited home market, which has steadily grown less. Herein may be found the cause of the extreme cheapness of Chinese labor. The problem in China is not how to get the most work out of a man, but how to divide a given piece of work so as to give the greatest possible number of men a chance to make a day's living out of it. The cheapest thing in the empire is a man, and therefore labor-saving devices are not in demand. How cheap this Chinese labor actually is may be better understood when it is known that in certain parts of the empire, Chinese carpenters have proved

that it is cheaper to saw up logs into planks by the use of hand labor than with a sawmill; while in the great Kaiping mines, which have been developed under English engineers, it has been found cheaper to bring the coal to the surface by the use of human labor than to use engines, stationed at the very mouth of the mines and run with coal taken from them. While the development of Chinese railroads and the removal of the *liken* taxes will open up the markets of China, it will also bring this cheap Chinese labor into competition with the higher paid labor of the civilized world. This feature of the case must be particularly interesting to American labor, for the Chinese are quick to learn, and in the control of a competing power this enormous supply of cheap labor can and doubtless would be used to accomplish our industrial annihilation. The preservation of American industrial supremacy would therefore seem to require that we control the introduction of Chinese labor into the markets of the world and see that it is diverted into those branches of industry which shall compete the least with our own.



With the contest in China reduced to a trial of diplomatic skill, the Chinese may again feel some assurance that they will be able to maintain their position, for they are certainly masters of this subtle game. The powers have accomplished little with China in the past, for the reason that no foreign minister who has yet been sent out there has proved equal to those wily old mandarins. From the beginning of their intercourse with foreigners, they have so successfully flattered with polite attentions and put off with indefinite promises all who have pressed claims against them, that it can safely be said no other power in history has so nearly evaded all demands made upon it or so completely escaped the consequences of its acts. In diplomacy you are compelled to accept in good faith the statements of your opponent. The occidental is able to tell plausible or possible inventions without betraying himself, but to attempt to tell a ridiculous or utterly impossible one is beyond his ability. The Chinaman, however, is a more consummate artist. Without the quiver of a muscle, he will offer the most ridiculous settlements and solemnly protest his belief in the most preposterous, unreasonable or utterly impossible statements. In the presence of such colossal assurance and such marvelous self-control, the foreigner

becomes dazed and helpless. In addition to this, the Chinese habitually express their ideas in idioms and phrases with double or derived meanings, while they have a most remarkable talent for misunderstanding. Their whole diplomatic history is one of interminable explanations of deliberate misunderstandings. Proofs are multiplying, however, that the diplomatic representatives of the Chinese empire have really a more comprehensive understanding of our civilization than have our diplomatists of theirs. In fact, the difficulties of the Chinese language make its four thousand years of history, the greatest accumulation of human experience in government, a closed book to our statesmen. In all the trying experiences of the recent trouble, China's representatives have without exception maintained their position in hostile courts and not one has been guilty of an embarrassing indiscretion. Judged by historic standards, their diplomacy has been unapproached, for they have comprehended the purpose of their opponents while successfully concealing their own. With all the powers preparing to make claims for enormous monetary indemnities, what could excel Li Hung Chang's pronouncement that China is too poor to pay in coin, and must therefore be partitioned in order to pay the indemnities with slices of territory. He knows that it would be impossible for the powers to agree on such a settlement, and that they would not allow each other to accept payment in such a manner. A government can make no greater offer than that of territory,



THE NEW CHINESE TWINS.

—*Minneapolis Journal.*

and Li Hung Chang, by placing the powers in a position where they cannot ask more yet dare not take what is offered, has undoubtedly saved his country much from the indemnities that must ultimately be paid.

Last month reference was made to the establishment of the first Protestant church in the Philippines. Here is an authentic account of the establishment of the liquor business in the same quarter:

There were three of what we know as saloons in Manila before the American occupation. Two of these were hotel bars. I mean by the word saloon, a public bar which sells all kinds of drinks at retail, to be consumed on the premises. There were two or three clubs besides this which sold liquors to their members. Many Spanish groceries sold claret by bottle only. In addition to these there were a large number of *tiendas*. A *tienda* is a native place which sells fruits, cigars, nuts, notions, etc. Most of these also sold native drinks, but in almost all cases the entire stock of liquor in these *tiendas* consisted of a single bottle, not quite as large as our wine bottles. Except so far as the ravages of the insurrection has destroyed property in Manila, particularly in the native quarters, these *tiendas* still exist and still have in stock their private bottle. They are licensed by the American military government; the license being merely nominal—one dollar and a half a year in gold. But under an order of General Otis they are not permitted to sell native drinks to soldiers, whether they have a license or not. I cannot tell you exactly the number of saloons that now exist, for the reason that the license department of the military government keeps the figures secret, but in my personal canvass of Manila I found one hundred and three of what we know as American saloons, where all sorts of drinks are sold over the bar. In addition to these there were a large number of beer houses, licensed for the sale of beer and wine, as well as a large number of disreputable resorts also licensed for the sale of beer and wine by the military government. So that the total of licensed saloons and beer houses amounts to about four hundred at the present time. This does not include the canteens. As to the entire Philippines I can give you nothing but a general idea. The saloons are licensed by the provost marshal of various towns. Cavite, for instance, has about ten saloons. The other cities, like Malolos, Iloilo and Cebu have a similar number of saloons. Dagupin has no saloons for the reason that the provost marshal refused to license them. Everybody who wants a drink at Dagupin must patronize the canteen. The Americans took possession of Manila on

August 13, 1898, and the saloons began to be established a few days later.

The Cuban Constitutional Convention began its sessions in Havana November 5. General Leonard Wood, military governor, was present with his staff, and there was "immense enthusiasm and cheering for the United States," to quote from a dispatch sent to Washington by General Wood. The

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THE RULERS OF SULU.

From a photograph taken at Jolo, Sulu Islands. Courtesy of *American Illustrated Methodist Magazine*.

1, the Sultan; 2, Major Owen J. Sweet, 22d U. S. Infantry and Governor of Sulu; 3, Prince Dato Rajah Mudah Mohamad Mualil Wasit, the Sultan's elder brother and heir-apparent to the Sulu throne; 4, Capt. Wm. H. Sage, Adjutant 23d Infantry and Secretary Moro Affairs; 5, Hadji Mohamad Butu, Prime Minister to the Sultan; 6, Abdul Uahab, interpreter for the Sultan; 7, Charles Schuck, official interpreter to the Governor of Jolo; 8, Otto Basarudin, fourth principal adviser to the Sultan; 9, Hadji Cato Mohamad Sali, swordbearer to the Sultan.

military governor declared that the purpose of the convention was the framing and adoption of a constitution for Cuba, and the formulation of wise relations between Cuba and the United States. He insisted that the constitution to be adopted must be adequate to secure stable, orderly and free government, and that when the relations between the two governments have been formulated the government of the United States will probably take action that will lead to a final and authoritative agreement between the two countries. The thirty-two delegates were present at the opening of the convention, and Señor Llorente, justice of the

supreme court, was elected president. A resolution was presented at the first session in which the delegates manifested their satisfaction with which they had seen General Wood carry out the delicate mission intrusted to him, and directing that the following

message be sent to the president of the United States:

The delegates elected to the Constitutional Convention, assembled at their inaugural meeting, greet with profound gratitude and affection the President of the United States of North America, and they are satisfied with the honesty demonstrated in the fulfilment of the declarations made in favor of liberty and independence of the Cuban people.



THE LATE
CHARLES DUDLEY WARNER.

The transformation wrought in Cuba under the direction of

General Wood is inconceivable to one who is unfamiliar with the conditions prevailing there before American occupancy. There has been development toward better things in every particular. In respect to educational matters the advance has been phenomenal. Under the old régime there was a university located at Havana, under the control of the state, and supported almost entirely by state funds. In each province there was a high school, and several public schools of inferior grade. Under Spanish rule the whole machinery of public instruction was in a dilapidated condition. But the university has been reorganized, the institutes or high schools have been put on a better basis, with new apparatus and better teachers, and the entire public school system has been made over. More than 3,100 schools have been established, 3,600 teachers employed, and there are now 150,000 children in the schools; this number will reach 250,000 within the next six months. During the present school year at least \$4,000,000 will be expended for public education.

A great change has also taken place in connection with the benevolent institutions of the island. Many of the hospitals have been reorganized, renovated and re-equipped, and there has recently been put into operation a new and beneficent law governing the administration of charities and providing for the care of orphans, indigents and the insane. A number of asylums have disbanded, and

because of improved sanitary and industrial conditions throughout the island the children in them have been taken into the families of relatives and friends.

The record which General Wood made in improving the sanitary condition of Santiago has been duplicated in a greater or less degree in other centers. While it is true that there has been an unusual amount of yellow fever in Havana, it must be remembered that it is prevalent largely among the Spanish immigrants who are arriving on every steamer from Europe, and who are not immune. Then, Havana has not been put upon as sound and safe a sanitary basis as Santiago, and until the causes of epidemic are removed by modern plumbing and methods of sanitation yellow fever will continue to claim its victims every year by the hundred.

Cuba has profited beyond computation in regard to its public works by American occupation. The building and reconstruction of bridges and highways has been extensive and timely. Six hundred and twenty-two miles of roadway have been built or repaired during the year, while 1,200 miles more have been surveyed. Much has been done in the way of new lighthouses and other aids to navigation. Towns hitherto dependent upon impure sources for their water supply have had water systems built costing hundreds of thousands of dollars. The customs service has been put upon a substantial basis and all ports have been supplied with necessary launches and boats, many of which have been constructed in this country. A revenue and coast patrol fleet has also been organized. In every department there has been a rejuvenation which reveals the touch of a genius and the grip of a master.

The census office has made public a number of important tables and results in which the students of sociology will find material for speculation. The total population of the United States is placed at 76,295,220. The gain since 1890 amounts to 13,225,464, or about 21 per cent. The total is given for the states and territories, including the newest territory, Hawaii, but not including Porto Rico and the Philippines, which are not regarded by the government as integral parts of the United States, but as mere "provinces" or dependencies outside of the constitutional system.

Most of the commonwealths have grown,

and but few have remained stationary or suffered a decline. Nebraska has made a slight gain, while Kansas has remained stationary. Nevada has lost a few thousand inhabitants. In some states the increase has been extraordinary. The full list of the states, with their population this year and in 1890, is appended:

	1900.	1890.
Alabama	1,828,697	1,513,017
Arkansas	1,311,564	1,128,179
California	1,485,053	1,208,130
Colorado	539,700	412,196
Connecticut	908,355	746,258
Delaware	184,735	168,493
Florida	528,542	391,422
Georgia	2,216,329	1,837,353
Idaho	161,771	84,385
Illinois	4,821,550	3,326,351
Indiana	2,516,463	2,192,404
Iowa	2,251,829	1,911,896
Kansas	1,469,496	1,427,096
Kentucky	2,147,174	1,858,635
Louisiana	1,381,627	1,118,587
Maine	694,366	661,086
Maryland	1,189,946	1,042,390
Massachusetts	2,805,346	2,238,943
Michigan	2,419,782	2,093,889
Minnesota	1,751,395	1,301,826
Mississippi	1,551,372	1,289,600
Missouri	3,107,117	2,679,184
Montana	243,289	132,159
Nebraska	1,068,901	1,058,910
Nevada	42,334	45,761
New Hampshire	411,588	376,530
New Jersey	1,883,669	1,444,933
New York	7,268,009	5,997,853
North Carolina	1,891,992	1,617,947
North Dakota	319,040	182,719
Ohio	4,157,545	3,672,316
Oregon	413,532	313,767
Pennsylvania	6,301,365	5,258,014
Rhode Island	428,556	345,506
South Carolina	1,340,312	1,151,149
South Dakota	401,559	328,808
Tennessee	2,022,723	1,767,518
Texas	3,048,828	2,235,523
Utah	276,565	207,905
Vermont	343,641	332,422
Virginia	1,854,184	1,655,980
Washington	517,672	349,390
West Virginia	958,900	762,794
Wisconsin	2,068,963	1,686,880
Wyoming	92,531	60,705
Total for 45 states	74,627,907	62,116,811

First in population is New York; Pennsylvania is second, Illinois third, Ohio fourth, Missouri fifth and Texas sixth. In this group the lowest has a population exceeding 3,000,000. Another group of states with a population of 2,000,000 and over, but under 3,000,000 includes Georgia, Indiana, Iowa, Kentucky, Massachusetts, Michigan, Tennessee, and Wisconsin. The United States is a country of great commonwealths and large cities.

The multiplication of large cities is perhaps the most significant feature of the census reports. The future, political and economic, of the country will be considerably affected by this tendency. We have now nineteen cities of more than 200,000 population, thirty-eight cities of over 100,000 population, and 159 cities containing 25,000 inhabitants each. Up to the Civil war the United States was a country of small cities, but by 1890 our large cities outnumbered those of the British Isles, and in the last decade the urban tendency has shown no decline. Here is a table arranged for the purpose of exhibiting the growth of the several classes of large cities:



THE LATE JOHN SHERMAN.

Classified sizes.	Population.			
	1900.	1890.	Increase.	Per cent.
Cities of 200,000 and over	11,795,809	8,879,105	2,916,704	32.8
Cities of 100,000 and under				
200,000	2,412,538	1,808,656	603,882	33.3
Cities of 50,000 and under				
100,000	2,709,338	2,067,169	642,169	31.0
Cities of 25,000 and under				
50,000	2,776,940	2,100,559	676,381	32.2
Total	19,694,625	14,855,489	4,839,136	32.5

It is important to note, however, that the entire west, from Ohio to the Pacific coast, has suffered a check. In the past ten years the growth of population has been greater in the northeastern states than in the great western states. In the latter the rate of growth has been lower than the average rate for the entire country. The far west also shows a smaller absolute as well as relative growth than in the previous decade.

The reverse side of the problem of the city is the problem of the country village, for the country community can win back its lost population only as it presents opportunities and attractions which may in a measure compensate for its isolation. Many methods

for instruction and entertainment employed in a city settlement would be more than welcome in not a few lonely country communities, but unfortunately there is no one to take the initiative, and often there are no resources to carry out such plans as might be devised. The story of the village of Pleasant Valley, Connecticut, referred to in the C. L. S. C. Round Table in this number, makes

opinion of Justice Davy, "is not that of mere protection to wounded feelings"—injury to feelings not being a cause of action, in a court of law or equity—"but the protection of plaintiff's right of privacy and the right of property in her own likeness." Every private person is entitled to a life of privacy, and every personal interest must be regarded as private, save where the public

has acquired a right therein. If the defendant's likeness, owing to its beauty, is of value as a marketable commodity, it is a property right which belongs to her and can not be taken from her without her consent. These grounds are entirely novel. No court of justice has ever before vested the right to privacy on the principle of private property in one's own image or unsubstantial interests. Legislatures have done nothing to protect privacy; ought not the courts to wait for the action of that department of government which



TINTERN ABBEY.

especially pertinent the following letter from a village pastor:

"If men of means who put large sums into enterprises already heavily endowed would put those sums in part into a multitude of little enterprises, many desert places would blossom as the rose. My limited experience will not give my opinion much weight, but I long to see a million dollars divided among a thousand villages as a parallel to the concentration which is at present characteristic of so much social endeavor."



The right of privacy is a subject of no little interest in these days of fierce publicity and enterprising journalism. On the one hand, our civilization tends to inculcate respect for privacy, and on the other it renders it difficult to enforce this right. Several months ago we directed attention to a decision limiting materially this right, but recently an important ruling leaning in the opposite direction was made in the supreme court of New York.

A young woman applied for an injunction to restrain a Rochester flour firm from using her portrait on the advertisements of its commodity. She alleged that this public exhibition of her portrait caused her mental distress and injury. There is no statute in New York preventing the act complained of, and the court was obliged to reason deductively from general principles. "The theory in the case," according to the

settles questions of policy and declares rights and correlative duties, instead of inferring the existence of new rights? Justice Davy is certainly right in saying that "for years there has existed in the public mind a feeling that the law was too lax in affording some remedy for the unauthorized circulation of portraits of private persons," but if the law is lax, is it the province of the courts to furnish additional protection by the process of judicial legislation? It remains to see what the highest court will think of the decision.



Those who take comfort in the preservation of really significant ruins are interested in the fact that Tintern Abbey, and thousands of acres adjoining it in the picturesque valley of the Wye, may become national property. This abbey, which has been for generations one of England's architectural treasures, was founded in 1131. It was constructed so leisurely that mass was not celebrated in it until 1268. The building, with the exception of the tower and roof, is in a fair state of preservation. It is now under the control of the Duke of Beaufort.

Much of the recent fame of Tintern Abbey may be traced to Wordsworth's "Lines Composed a Few Miles Above Tintern

Abbey, on Revisiting the Banks of Wye During a Tour." Of this charming poem, written in 1798, Wordsworth himself says: "No poem of mine was composed under circumstances more pleasant for me to remember than this. I began it upon leaving Tintern, after crossing the Wye, and concluded it just as I was entering Bristol in the evening, after a ramble of four or five days." In the poem there is no allusion to Tintern Abbey, but the fact that the lines were written immediately after the poet had visited the abbey has helped to keep alive a firm love for the old church.



The judges have decided upon the first list of names for the Hall of Fame of New York University. This unique institution is the gift of a friend of the university whose name is withheld, and is intended to enshrine the names and perpetuate memories of such native-born Americans who have been dead ten years as in the opinion of the judges may be worthy of the distinction. The public was invited to make nominations from certain classes of persons, such as statesmen, philanthropists, men of letters, editors, soldiers, sailors, merchants, physicians, painters, jurists, theologians, preachers, etc. In June 234 approved names were sent to the judges of whom 25 were college and university presidents, 26 professors of history and scientists, 26 publicists, editors and authors, and 23 justices of state and national supreme courts. Only 97 of the 100 judges sent reports, the returns resulting in the choice of the following 29 names:

George Washington	97
Abraham Lincoln	96
Daniel Webster	96
Benjamin Franklin	94
Ulysses S. Grant	92
John Marshall	91
Thomas Jefferson	90
Ralph Waldo Emerson	87
Robert Fulton	85
Henry Wadsworth Longfellow	85
Washington Irving	83

Jonathan Edwards	81
Samuel F. B. Morse	80
David Glasgow Farragut	79
Henry Clay	74
Nathaniel Hawthorne	73
George Peabody	72
Peter Cooper	69
Robert E. Lee	69
John James Audubon	67
Horace Mann	67
Eli Whitney	67
Henry Ward Beecher	66
James Kent	65
Joseph Story	64
John Adams	61
William Ellery Channing	58
Gilbert Stuart	52
Asa Gray	51

As was to be expected, the findings of these judges has given rise to varied and almost endless discussion, nearly every person who has given attention to the matter having some criticism to offer concerning the admission of some name or the exclusion of some others. Perhaps the feature of the general scheme which has been criticized most severely is that which confines the names to native-born Americans. The claim is made that certain foreign-born Americans have achieved distinction and have rendered services to the country far in excess of the performances of some who have been chosen and are among "the elect." There is reason in this criticism and to mollify it somewhat it is proposed to erect another Temple of Fame for Great Americans of foreign birth contiguous to the present structure. By action of the University Senate each nomination to the Hall of Fame of the present year that has received the approval of ten or more of the judges and has failed to receive a majority, will be considered a nomination for the year 1902, when the remaining 21 panels belonging to this year are to be filled.



One of the most remarkable feats of engineering known to modern times is the great dam in process of construction at



PHILAE AFTER THE COMPLETION OF THE DAM.

PHILAE AS IT IS TODAY.

Assouan on the upper Nile. This dam when completed will be nearly two miles long and sixty feet high. To resist the tremendous pressure the foundations had to be laid broad and deep so that a huge trench averaging one hundred feet in width and depth was



FRANCIS L. ROMEO,
Acting Consular Agent
U.S. A., Alexandria, Egypt.

excavated in the granite bed of the river. The dam is to be pierced by 180 gates, each about six feet wide, which can be opened during the period of inundation, allowing the silt-laden waters to pass through and so enable the reservoir at the close of the flood to retain an abundance of clear water without a great accumulation of soil. Work can be done only between October and

July, during which time thousands of men are employed day and night. A second dam on a smaller scale at Assiout, farther down the river, also forms a part of this system of water works. Here a different problem has been met, for the foundations are being laid on the bed of the Nile itself, no rock having been touched. The work was begun in 1899 under Engineer John Aird, representing the English contractors. The works are to be finished in five years at a cost of \$25,000,000, no payments being made until they are completed. The only melancholy aspect of this splendid undertaking is the practical destruction of the little island of Philæ, one of the most romantic spots on the Nile. The height of the dam as at first proposed would have wiped out the island entirely, but such a storm of protest arose that the estimate was cut down one half. Even with this reduction the ultimate destruction of Philæ's graceful temples can be only a work of time, though spared for a season to the archaeologist and traveler. The accompanying cuts show how much of the island will disappear below the waters.

For several months the Boston *Transcript* has been printing articles written by a Unitarian minister, showing a large falling off in church attendance. A reliable New York news bureau counted the number of persons in attendance at upwards of two hundred

places of public worship at both services on October 14 and October 21 — the latter date in cases where the first proved stormy. The cities in which counts were made were Boston, New York including Brooklyn, Philadelphia, Pittsburgh including Allegheny, Cincinnati, St. Louis, Chicago, St. Paul and Minneapolis, and San Francisco. Churches were chosen at random, in some cities the small ones, and in others the large ones, and they included Methodist, Baptist, Presbyterian, Congregational, Christian, Lutheran, Episcopal and Roman Catholic. There were no figures as a whole for the previous year with which to compare, but in many instances records were found in individual churches, it appearing to be a growing custom among churches to keep accurate records of attendance. In all of the cities named, and in all of the religious bodies named, the attendance was found to be normal, and in enough churches growths were found to make a general advance of about seven per cent over last year. No bad slump was found anywhere that could not be explained by local and exceptional conditions. Some fragmentary statistics were taken of Sunday-school attendance, and as far as records were had the *Transcript's* assertions were found to be, in the cities named at least, without foundation.

People who deal in Bibles say that the demand for family Bibles, having the family records between the two Testaments, has almost wholly ceased. They do not know whether this is because family prayers have almost ceased, or are said to have done so, or whether their place is being taken by teachers' Bibles, the sales of which are rapidly increasing. Some years since Bibles bore the Oxford imprint. Now almost all of the best Bibles are manufactured in this country. Some plates are brought from England, but for the most part these are reserved to print the cheaper Bibles for the use of the Bible societies. One can buy Bibles at four hundred dollars a copy, but the Bible trade says the average price paid nowadays for Bibles is about one dollar. Apart from the American Bible Society and its auxiliaries, the public absorbs about two million copies a year. Hence the general public of the United States spends two million dollars a year for Bibles at this end of this century. It is not so great a sum as it spends for tobacco or some other things, but Bible sellers say it is a greater amount than ever before, and one that is steadily increasing.

THE SHRINKING EARTH.

(A Twentieth-Century Vision.)

Into the void a world was flung,
To join the spheric choir;
On its appointed way it swung,
Robed in primeval fire.

Upon its hot and glowing face
The cooling floods descended.
The land and ocean took their place,
The sky above them bended.

The sun and rain, the ice and frost,
Chiselled and carved it daily,
Till all the surface was embossed
With mountain, stream and valley.

Came fish and reptile, bird and beast,
By bounteous Nature nourished.
Came man, the mightiest and the last,
Who multiplied and flourished.

He sailed the seas, he bridged the streams,
He fought for pride or plunder,
Saw God in visions and in dreams,
And learned to watch and wonder.

The centuries behind him rolled,
The tribes increased to nations.
From torrid heat to arctic cold
They fixed their habitations.

And then a strange thing came to view
That set the wise to thinking:
As man in skill and wisdom grew,
The earth kept shrinking, shrinking.

The steamships throbbing o'er the deep,
The cables creeping under,
Contracted all the seas that keep
The continents asunder.

A hundred miles became as ten
Where iron steeds went rushing,
And myriads, soon, of angry men
For ampler room were pushing.

They dropped the hammer and the spade,
They seized the sword and saber,
And every nation stood arrayed
For war against its neighbor.

Then o'er the earth an outcry ran,
To highest heaven arising:
"Doth God Almighty mock at Man,
Such fate as this devising?"

"Subdue the Earth, was His command.
But what for us obeying?
A shrivelling Earth on which to stand,
And Man his brother slaying.

"Peace upon Earth! Is this the way
To gain the peace we cherish?
Read us the riddle, ye who may,
Lest we curse God and perish."

Then down the skyey fields again,
Angelic pinions glistened,
"Peace upon Earth!" again the strain,
And all the wide world listened.

"Peace upon Earth! But not the peace
Of sullen isolation.
Not yet the shrinking Earth may cease
Nation to draw to nation.

"Yet not for war hath God designed
The narrowing seas, but rather
For brotherhood of all mankind
In one all-loving Father.

"For this the Earth must smaller grow.
To this is Man progressing,
And some day all shall see and know
The beatific blessing."

Even with the words arose a crash
Of nations in collision,
And cannon-roar and saber-clash
Destroyed the heavenly vision.

But o'er the tumult of the fray
The angels kept on singing,
And still their song, "Some day, some day,"
In human hearts kept ringing.

— *Edward J. Wheeler.*

FIVE-MINUTE TALES TOLD IN CHINA.

AMERICANIZED BY CHU SEOUL BOK AND VINCENT VAN MARTER BEEDE.

CONFUCIUS DUMBFOUNDED.



IN the good old days when people deemed the world flat, Confucius plodded hither and thither with philosophy on the tip of his tongue, and wise answers for every query of young and old. Once he chanced upon two boys of ten years who were using high words. Said he benignly to the two lads, raising his hands in a gesture of rebuke and interest, "What may be, O, little ones, the cause of your clamor?" Introducing himself, he inquired further, "Will you be pleased to cease your dispute while I expound to you my system of clear reasoning?"

"Gladly," replied the lads in concert, casting themselves at the feet of the good sage. "Often have our ears been honored with the Mighty yet Sweet Sound of your Marvelous Name, O, Most Lustrous Pearl of Unsurpassed Knowledge."

"Then," continued Confucius, "present to me forthwith your telling arguments."

Bowing low, the first boy made answer: "I hold, O, Incarnate Wisdom, that the distance between this spot and the horizon is greater than the distance from here to the top of the sky, for the reason that when I hurried to school this morning at the rising of the sun, the air was as chill as the Hoang in winter, while now the sun is at the top of the sky, and I feel as hot as though I were locked in my mother's oven. When the sun is distant, I am cool; when it is near, I am hot; therefore, O, Bottomless Ocean of Learning, the base is greater than the altitude."

Gave forth the second boy, bowing lower than his companion had done: "I am certain, O, Quintessence of the Wisdom of All Ages, that the distance between this place and the summit of the sky-dome is longer than the base-distance mentioned by my erring playmate, because when I journeyed to school this morning with the sun just appearing in the east, the Golden Lily of the Sky was of the bigness of a wheel, while at this present moment it is as small as the mouth of my rice-bowl. An object is great when it is near, small when far away, therefore, O, Hope of Philosophy, the distance between this spot and the top of the sky is greater by far than the base."

With a tremulous sigh, Confucius shook his head and walked silently away.

THE MERCHANT'S REVENGE.

Among the passengers on board a junk plying between Omouru and Heungsain, which in fair weather are a day and a night's sail apart, was a Merchant who boasted that he had never met defeat in business dealings. Next to him in the cabin sat a well-clothed Blindman. While the Merchant was lost in sleep the Blindman pilched his blanket, broke a *cash* in two, concealed one-half of it in a corner of the blanket, and wrapped himself comfortably in the stolen bedding.

When morning came the Merchant discovered his loss and banded two-edged words with the Blindman because of the bare-faced theft. The Blindman calmly affirming that the blanket was his own, the matter was referred to a Magistrate. To that worthy explained the Blindman in lacquered tones: "I can easily prove my ownership. In this hand is half a *cash* of the year 1045. The twin half you will discover in the upper left-hand corner of the bedding." A search speedily revealed the fragment, and the blanket was declared to be the property of the Blindman.

Seeking revenge, the Merchant hired a small lad named Chat Loy Hai, or "Come-out-to-see," to offer himself as a guide of the Blindman, and to this proposition the latter readily agreed. On the brink of the river the boy suggested bathing. "I will go in first, O, Thou Whose Eyes Are Gifted With Celestial Sight," proposed Come-out-to-see; but instead of himself entering the water he cast in a large stone. The Blindman dived confidently in its direction and struck out to mid-stream. Meantime Come-out-to-see was hastening to the Merchant with the Blindman's clothes and the purloined blanket. Hearing the derisive shout of the fleeing boy, the Blindman bawled out in a rage: "Come-out-to-see! Come-out-to-see!" Villagers came out to see what they fondly hoped would prove an interesting quarrel at white heat. What they gazed upon was an enraged and naked blind man, whom in recompense for their much disappointment they treated to the soudest drubbing of his life.

In this manner the Merchant was revenged.

A BAD MATTER MADE WORSE.

Once lived a man who had three daughters fair as the rising moon. Two were married to poor men of refinement and education, while Git San was the wife of one wealthy but witless. Git San was possessed by the desire to show her sisters the superiority of riches, and at last an occasion presented itself which would gratify her longing, for there fell the birthday of her father-in-law. Invitations were issued to all her relatives for the proper celebration of the natal event. Git San, fearful lest her husband's table manners should not appear to good advantage at the feast, made it up with him that she would tie to his ankle a thread. This she would jerk when it should be the proper moment for him to adjust his chopsticks and fall to. The woman was forced to this method of reminding because etiquette forbade men and women to eat at the same board. Git San would have preferred a place opposite or next to her husband, where she could control his actions by kicks or elbowing.

In the course of conversation at the feast, at a time when none was eating, a rooster became entangled with the signal thread, and in an effort to liberate itself twitched the ankle of the Rich Husband, who accordingly fell at his plate with self-satisfying avidity. Others talked while he gorged. But the struggles of the fowl produced a continued and vigorous signal. The host, bound that on this occasion he would be a mandarin in propriety, threw aside his chopsticks and defied etiquette by eating with his fingers. At length he could swallow no more, and the frantic signal suffering no abatement, he screamed to Git San: "Stop your pulling there, O, Maddening Plant of the Nighttime! There is nothing left to eat!"

TWO DINNERS INSTEAD OF ONE.

Two Woodcutters were much annoyed by gnats. Stopping their toil for a time they disputed concerning the origin of the stinging marauders. One averred that they were generated in swamps and damp places, while the other persisted that they had birth in decayed wood. Finally the men agreed to visit next day an old villager whose decision on their dispute should be final. That evening each Woodcutter sought the villager without the knowledge of the other, both promising the old man an elaborate dinner if he should decide in the applicant's favor. The villager assented to both suggestions, and at the appointed time the Woodcutters stated before him their arguments.

After many puffs at many bowlfuls the old man replied: "Dear Beams from the Eye of the Sky, You Who Have Deigned to Cast The Edge of Your Refulgence Against the Hem of an Old Man's Garment, know, then, that the head of a gnat is generated in a swamp, while its body is the offspring of decayed wood. The head is born before the body, therefore"—addressing the first Woodcutter—"I will accept *your* dinner first, and dine with thee, O, Sunbeam of Equal Glory, tomorrow noon."

A SURE CURE.

A certain country school was once taught by a teacher named Lay, who had been given the nickname "Chee Fun Sin Sang," signifying "The Flirting Teacher." Lay's favorite pupil was a child, Ah Toy by name. The teacher showed much favor to the youngster, not because of the latter's progress in his lessons, but for the reason that his young mother was flower-featured and infinitesimally small-footed. From time to time Lay bestowed upon the boy sweetmeats and money. The parents protested against this practise, knowing the reason for it,—but to no avail, until they bethought them of this maneuver: One day Ah Toy was instructed to inform Lay that the father was about to set out upon a long journey. The teacher observed the man to leave his dwelling. As well he watched the mother in the act of carrying ten bushels of unshelled rice from an outhouse to her mill. By her child she sent Lay a cordial invitation to pay her a visit. Lay, overjoyed, bought presents for his loved hostess, and, scented with sandalwood oil and attars, hastened to her dwelling. No sooner had he greeted the long-lashed mother, and swallowed his first cup of tea, when, lo! there returned the hostess' husband.

And the dwelling had no windows and but one door. The woman affected confusion and suggested that Chee Fun Sin Sang disguise himself in the garments and head-cloth of a woman. "Take your place at yonder mill," whispered the fair one, "and grind my rice, in order that my husband may suppose you to be a new maidservant." Lay obeyed. The husband accounted for his return by saying that he had reached the river only to see the junk as a tea leaf in a bowl. Leisurely seating himself, and regarding the toiling teacher with no surprise, he conversed with his wife until the ten bushels of rice were thoroughly shelled in the heavy mill.

After three days Ah Toy bore to his

teacher a message even more cordial than the first had been. Lay's reply was: "Many thanks to the Maternal Flower-Petal of the Dew-Covered Lily of Womankind, but I think I have shelled quite enough rice."

A SUBTLE REPROOF.

A certain Magistrate had a peculiar but not unique rule of practise associated with the law of evidence as enforced in his court. The maxim, running—"The heavier the gold the weightier the evidence," was applicable to both civil and criminal cases.

One day this dignitary employed a Gardener, who was an expert planter and a man held in highest esteem by all who knew him, because of his irreproachable character and regard for justice. In setting out certain rare species of flora he placed beneath each plant a *cash*. Such an unheard-of proceeding provoked the curiosity of the Magistrate. "Why do you do thus and so?" he asked.

Whereupon the Gardener uttered this explanatory aphorism: "Every one having money shall live; but everyone lacking money shall die."

CHRISTMAS IN FOREIGN LANDS.

BY ELIZABETH T. NASH.



If we could follow Saint Nicholas in his trip around the world Christmas eve, we might observe many pretty customs and superstitions. If we examine the most characteristic and interesting of the Christmas customs of a dozen different nationalities, we shall gain some idea of the world at Yule-tide.

Germany, the historic home of the Christmas tree and the source of many of the current Christmas customs and devices, is a good country from which to start on such a trip. German children on Christmas eve look forward to the visit of the Christ-child and Knave Ruprecht, who, closely muffled, come knocking at each door. On entering, they question the parents as to the children's behavior since the last visit, and if the answers are satisfactory Knave Ruprecht scatters apples and nuts with a lavish hand from a bag he carries on his shoulder. He also leaves a bundle of rods behind, in case they should be needed before he calls again; and then, while the children are scrambling for the nuts, he and the Christ-child disappear.

In Denmark there is the "Klapper-bock" or "Jul-bock," a wonderful steed made of a long pole bearing at one end the head of a beast, covered with a goat-skin. One individual holds the stick, another pulls the string attached to the lower jaw of the head (which is movable), and the third represents the rider. The duty of this "Klapper-bock" is to butt children who forget their duties to God or are otherwise ill-behaved.

In the Hartz mountains the "Habersack" has its home. It consists of a forked bough, with a worn-out broom placed between the

forks, and surmounted by an old hat. A youth carries the bough, covering it and himself with a long cloak or shawl, and so appears as a monstrosity with horns, to the terror of the children and the pleasure of the elders, who pass many a half-hour in divining which of their neighbors impersonates the yearly visitor.

Many Hessian peasants believe that at midnight on Christmas eve the water of running brooks is turned to wine, that cattle talk together in the stalls, that bees hum and swarm, and that any one standing beneath an apple tree—the tree of life—will see the heavens open.

That the Irish also believe cattle talk at midnight Christmas eve, was proved to me not long since by a servant of more than usual intelligence; and only last year a Scotch woman declared that her grandmother had *heard* them.

In Belgium the cooks have a strong superstition that if a boy bearing a gift is the first person to enter the kitchen on Christmas day, they will be favored by fortune that year. So, early Christmas morning, boys equip themselves with boxes filled with wafers of bread, hasten to the nearest house, and rush to the kitchen. At sight of a boy the cook beams, for she knows his errand and welcomes him. "A merry Christmas," cries the boy. "And a merry Christmas to you as well," the cook answers. "I bring you a wafer, a Christmas gift," the boy continues. "And I beg of you to accept this trifle," the cook replies. The boy selects a wafer from his box and hands it to the cook, who in return urges him to accept a small gift of money. Then the boy

runs off, to try to be the first in other kitchens. The moment the cook receives the wafer she fastens it over a door of the kitchen, where there are already to be seen lines of wafers varying in extent according to the number of years the cook has seen service.

A pretty Swedish custom, which Hon. W. W. Thomas, Jr., a former minister to Sweden describes, is the birds' Christmas. Mr. Thomas says:

"One winter day, at jul-tide I had been skating on a pretty lake, Daljen, three miles from Gottenburg. On my way home I noticed at every farmer's house we passed there was erected in the middle of the dooryard a pole, to the top of which was bound a large full sheaf of grain. 'Why is this?' I asked of my comrade. 'Oh, that is for the birds, the little wild birds! They must have a Christmas, too, you know.' There is not a peasant in all Sweden who will sit down with his children to a Christmas dinner, until he has first raised aloft a Christmas dinner for the little birds that live in the cold and snow without."

In Russia on Christmas eve the boys often disguise themselves as animals. Wolves, bears, ostriches, foxes, all appear and form into a procession in which the boys who are not disguised take part as keepers or managers. There is also a "band" composed of rude, harsh-sounding instruments, and the procession is illuminated by torches. The boys hurry from house to house, clamoring at each door until it is opened. Then the company begins its entertainment, the "animals" dancing and capering, the keepers telling of their captives. At length the patrons of the performance bring forth food and drink, and give two small pieces of money to be distributed among the boys. In some parts of Russia the boys' festivities partake of a religious character, small theatrical bands going about to give a kind of religious play. Songs are sung, and the usual offerings of hospitality are made.

In Erzerum, Armenia, Christmas-tide is the season when the maidens fancy they can choose the love of their dreams, and they have a unique way of getting the question decided. In the early morning, before sunrise, the maiden makes a corn cake. While it is in the oven, she dresses herself in her prettiest costume, for this is an offering to fate and she must look her best. When the cake is done, the maiden bears it to the roof where she places it on the terraced housetop, then hides herself behind the great chimney. Suddenly there comes a whirr of wings, and she sees a great bird looking toward the cake. Finally he swoops down in swift flight and seizes the maiden's

offering to fate. This is the supreme moment. The girl's eyes never waver a moment in watching the bird's flight, for where he rests will be her future mate, if she chooses to have him. If the bird flies far away her fate will not be settled during the coming year.

Christmas and Easter are the most prominent of the one hundred and eighty-four holidays of the Gregorian Armenians. All the work of cleaning and washing is done the week before Christmas week. Then comes the concocting of sweetmeats, for which these people are famous. When everything is in readiness the father and sons go to the public bath one day, the women and children the next; and then, with spotless house, immaculate linen and shining faces, they await the coming of Christmas. Christmas eve the father buys a dozen candles, about the size of a lead pencil, but a little longer. These he fastens to the edge of the dining table by their own wax. The family gather, the candles are lighted, and the Christmas speech is made by the father, who times his remarks by the burning of the candles. The story of Christ's birth and childhood, with emphasis laid upon his filial obedience, is told. When the last taper is burned the speech ends and the feast begins. Christmas day is devoted by the men to visiting, and by their families to receiving. The Christmas salutation is always the same: "The gracious birth and baptism of Christ." And the reply is, "Blessed be His birth and baptism." Sweetmeats in all sorts of dainty forms are then offered the guests. As a rule the Armenians do not give Christmas gifts. But the richer ones, in remembrance of the shepherds who brought gifts to the Babe of Bethlehem, take much pleasure in ministering to the wants of the poor at Christmas time, believing that they are thus giving to Christ.

A curious custom of almsgiving in Brittany, France, is of very ancient origin. When the country folk go to midnight mass (the opening mass of Christmas day) they all carry lanterns to light them on their way. On arriving at the church, they give their lanterns to the poor old women of the parish, who are waiting for them. When mass is ended, they come out of the church, get their lanterns from the women and in return give a piece of money. The value of the piece varies, but the alms is always considerable, as it stands as an exponent of that charity which the church teaches to its children.

In Paris the older people go to grand high mass from ten o'clock until midnight, when the mass ends and the altar boys snuff the tall candles. Then parents, grandparents, all who are old enough, turn to the home of the oldest married brother or sister, for this is the one meal of the year where all are gathered together. The "supper" is a grand dinner, where toasts are drunk, in harmless unintoxicating grape wine, to every conceivable good luck past and to come. Then all the affairs of the family are discussed, and if there have been quarrels or strained relations between any two of them, all is forgiven and forgotten in this family love-feast.

There are many pleasing English customs that cannot be given at length. The "waits" trace their origin to the Norman era when the minstrels used to go about in the same way. The Lord of Misrule managed all the Christmas games and festivities. The "Christmas boxes" are a survival of putting money in the boxes held by the "waits," "mummers" and carol singers. These were often clay or earthen receptacles, with a slit to receive money, and they were broken after the collecting was done. Here is one of the stanzas sung at the end of the carols:

"Now, ladies and gentlemen, your sport is just ended,
So prepare for the box, which is highly commended.
The box it would speak, if it had but a tongue:
Come, throw in your money and think it no wrong."

The "waits" and minstrels used also this ancient wassailing cry:

"Bryne us in good ale, and bryne us in good ale,
For our Blessed Lady's sake, bryne us in good ale."

"Boxing day" comes from these Christmas

boxes. Watchmen, servants, journeymen, and the like, now expect a sum of money which they call a Christmas box.

According to the legend, Saint Nicholas, the Dutch Santa Claus (or Klaus) and the Holland "Knecht Clobes" are one. In Holland the children set their shoes outside the door Christmas eve for "Knecht Clobes" to fill. The German, English and American children hang up their stockings, firm in the belief that Kriss Kringle (a corruption of Christ-kindlein, or Christ-child) or Santa Claus will fill them with toys and sweets if they are good; otherwise Pelsnichol (literally Nicholas with fur) meaning Saint Nicholas, will fill them with small switches. The dread of getting the rod from old Pelsnichol keeps many a German child in order throughout the year. Just when Saint Nicholas became the one to punish children in Germany is not known. The name comes from Saint Nicholas, the patron saint of boys, said to have been Bishop of Myra, who died in 326. Saint Nicholas is said to have supplied three destitute maidens with their marriage portions, by secretly leaving money at their windows. As his birthday occurred just before Christmas he was thus made purveyor of the gifts of the season to all children in Flanders and Holland, who put their shoes or stockings outside in the hope that he will fill them.

Of all these customs we can certainly take for our own from France and Germany the Yule-time peace, from Brittany the alms to the poor aged ones — whom the Armenians also remember with gifts, even when they give no others — and from Sweden the sweet custom of remembering the birds.

THE SPIRIT OF THE GIFT.

'Tis not the weight of jewel or plate,

Or the fondle of silk and fur;

'Tis the spirit in which the gift is rich

As the gifts of the Wise Ones were;

And we are not told whose gift was gold

Or whose was the gift of myrrh.

— Edmund Vance Cooke.

EDUCATIONAL EXPERIMENTS.

EXCURSIONS AND GARDENING.

BY A. M. LOEHR.



BOYS and girls possess bodies as well as minds, and, inasmuch as prevailing educational systems give undue prominence to the cultivation of the mental faculties, it is essential that this fact be emphasized. Life cannot afford to be one-sided and generally maintains an even balance in fact, whereas educational systems are likely to do so in theory only. If it is conceded that education is a preparation for life, then our children should learn to *live*—to live, not for the fifteenth, but for the twentieth century. With modern inventions and the competition engendered thereby, life is not all play. Therefore *work* as distinguished from play, is the proper basis for an educational system. An education based on work would prepare for actual life, while cultivating a sound body and a well-balanced mind. So, quite aside from the problems of industrial congestion and agricultural isolation, special stress should be laid on out-door occupations and out-door studies. This fact is beginning to be generally recognized. Let us see what has been accomplished.

One hundred and twenty-five years ago the philanthropists, the followers of Rousseau and Basedow, introduced school excursions for purposes of study and observation. The plan was well received, and expanded until at present it is a feature of almost every school system. Forty years ago the city of Berne set aside a large sum as a permanent fund for this purpose and today excursions form part of the regular program. From the practise school of pedagogy at Jena, excursions are regularly undertaken to Thuringia, Franconia and the Hartz mountains. These trips require from one to three weeks' time. A Hungarian school recently visited Cronstadt, the Black sea and Rome. A Russian school attended the Paris Exposition. Sixty years ago the Armenians first sent out schools to the mountains, practising the principles of ancient Greek hospitality: my son entertained for thy son. From Indiana, fifty-five pupils have been given a historical outing, visiting points of interest in Virginia. Nothing better could be

devised to stimulate interest and impress facts.

Perhaps the most unique school carrying out the principles of cosmopolitan education in a practical manner, is the School for Helpless Girls founded by Miss Rye in London, England. Girls are taken from the streets and educated in domestic science and gardening, until they are sixteen years of age. They are then taken to a branch home in Canada, where they are cared for until suitable homes are found for them in the farming communities. They become self-supporting at an early age and do justice to their English training.

The funds for these excursions have been derived from various sources. But two of these merit our special consideration. Hamburg has solved the problem by the establishment of "Children's Excursion Savings Banks." Frankfort-on-the-Main and the Danish capital, on the other hand, annually send ten thousand children to the country, furnishing free transportation. Meanwhile children from the rural districts and villages visit Copenhagen and Frankfort. Most excursions, however, come from Berlin and the cities of Norway and Sweden.

Much time and careful preparation are needed in planning these outings. The children are not merely taken out for "a walk in leading strings," but receive preparatory instruction concerning the care of the body and of clothing and traveling apparatus. They are told how to breathe properly and how to march without weariness. The journey is mapped out by them on a chart, points of interest and phenomena to be observed being noted. The older pupils, constituting an educational commission, render reports on the history, architecture, and geography of the places visited, and young amateurs take photographs. On the whole, these excursions furnish an amount of pleasurable information which no book-lore, when presented alone, can equal.

Another phase of modern education, which deserves to be more widely introduced, is gardening. In France gardening is taught in twenty-eight thousand elementary schools,

each of which has a garden attached to it. In Sweden, thirty years ago, twenty-two thousand children received instruction in horticulture, and each of the two thousand and sixteen schools had for cultivation from one to twelve acres. In Russia, many children are taught tree, vine, grain, garden, silk-worm and bee culture.

A rural school for girls, near Berlin, prepares for home duties. The school has been in operation for a year, and an examination proved that the pupils, between the ages of nine and sixteen years, were as well grounded in common school branches as their sisters in the metropolis. Below is

THE DAILY PROGRAM.

A. M.

- 6:00 — Rising bell. Cold sponge bath. Dressing.
- 6:20 — Making beds, sweeping, dusting.
- 6:45 — Devotional exercises.
- 7:00 — Breakfast.
- 7:45 — Preparation of daily lessons or exercise in the open air.
- 8:00 — Science — One-half or three-quarters of an hour for each subject. Applied to domestic sciences.
- 10:00 — Lunch.
- 10:15 — Gardening — digging, planting, bedding, weeding; vegetable and flower culture under direction of a gardener.
- Music — Children taking turns in practising music for one-half hour and gardening for one hour.
- 11:30 — Dining-room duties.
- 12:00 — Dinner.

P. M.

- 12:30 — Plays, games, after resting.
- 2:30 — Drawing from nature, or needlework¹ outdoors. Individual reading.
- 3:30 — Preparation of daily lessons.
- 6:00 — Supper.
- 7:00 — Promenading in the garden.
- 8:00 — Bathing in the lake. Singing.
- 9:00 — Bedtime.

In winter, science and indoor gardening are practised, with skating and sleighing.

Near Camden, New Jersey, we find a similar institution.² The Philotechnic Institute, founded more than a quarter of a century

ago, to combine mental with manual training, tried to extend its system to the rural schools. Failing to interest the directors in the scheme, a plat of ground was rented for a garden. The children of the neighboring school were encouraged to help work in the garden, when not engaged in the schoolroom. They receive for their services from five to seven cents per hour. The price is not determined by the size or age of the child, but by the quality of the work done. The children are paid in stock, which represents ground-rent, labor, and cost of crops. The stock is guaranteed at one dollar per share, and a dividend is paid whenever there is any profit to divide. This gives children a direct interest in the work, and makes the school garden a part of the greatest educational institution — the business world.

The director thus sums up his experiences:

"When we began, we found pupils who could solve problems in fractions and square root, but didn't know how to get right angles for a poultry house, or the degrees of obliquity of the sun's rays, so as to get the best angle on the south sides of ridges, for securing the greatest benefit from the rays for early crops. They did not know how to lay the lines for scientific plowing, how to turn the good ground towards the center and leave the 'dead' furrows next to the fence for the weeds to grow in. All this, and more, we aim to teach them. In connection with our work we intend to study the elementary principles of farming and the natural sciences. There is always a demand for educated gardeners, and these receive more than twice the wages of common farm laborers."

It would seem that these experiments prove that gardening can be successfully introduced into every school system. Much is done by the state agricultural experiment stations and private enterprise. The Missouri Botanical Gardens offer free scholarships — unfortunately thus far to young men only; but public school teachers are admitted to courses in practical botany. Vacant lots abound everywhere, it only remains to start the ball rolling in the right direction — away from frills and fads toward practical life.

PUBLIC SWIMMING BATHS.

BY JANE A. STEWART.

Swimming is an art of established practical value. That it is also an art of great educational value from the standpoint of muscular coördination and general training of bodily powers is not to be gainsaid. Realizing this fact, the Brookline, Massa-

chusetts Education Society, at the completion of the new public bathing establishment in the town, set to work to see how such an attractive and potent factor might be utilized as an aid in the physical training of the school children. A sub-committee of the

¹ Mending their own clothes and sewing for a school protégé.

² Account adapted from *Meehan's Monthly*, July, 1900.

society was appointed, consisting of the medical officer of the board of health, the superintendent of the water works, the lady member of the committee on improved bathing facilities, and the director of physical training in the public schools. This committee, believing that something approaching a practical plan might be carried out with beneficial and pleasurable results to the pupils, recommended that for a portion of the year competent instruction be provided for both boys and girls, and that the slight expense involved be defrayed from the school funds. The arrangement suggested was that the use of a natatorium be reserved on certain afternoons for girls and on others for boys. At these times pupils arranged according to grades might enjoy its privileges free of charge.

As a result of these well-directed efforts, though swimming instruction is not at all compulsory, it is now a part of the regular school curriculum, and the expense—five hundred dollars—is met by an appropriation by the school board.

In view of the relation which this model bath establishment sustains to the system of public instruction, a brief description may have a peculiar interest to educators as well as to all those interested in novel and approved methods of promoting the public health and the common weal.

The Brookline public bath furnishes almost ideal conditions for a swimming school. It was instituted in 1895, and cost the community \$40,000, exclusive of the land. Esthetically, the structure which the good sense of the public spirit of the town people has materialized is a delight to the eye. It is centrally located near a finely-equipped new high school, facing the principal public playground. The ornate building is set in a frame of landscape gardening, embowered in shrubbery. It is constructed of handsome dark-red water-struck brick, with gray limestone trimmings, and has a finely arched masonry entrance over which appears, on a stone tablet supported by dolphins, the appropriate words: "The Health of the People is the Beginning of Happiness."

Pleasing as is the exterior, the interior is even more inviting and attractive. Passing through the decorated vestibule, the main office and waiting room, the visitor is ushered into a hall about one hundred feet long and fifty feet wide, in the center of which is the natatorium, a great, green, transparent pool, reflecting the dancing sun's

rays from the arched windows high in the walls above. The vaulted ceiling, thirty feet overhead, is of a delicate pale green hue, broken by a ground glass sky-light tempering the garish daylight. Heraldic devices, the seals of the commonwealth and of the town, in blue and gold, brighten the cream-tinted walls. Over each window the names of heroes, real and legendary, honored for muscular exploits, are lettered in gold. There is inspiration in the inscriptions which adorn the walls:

"Sir, he may live!
I saw him beat the billows under him,
And ride upon their backs."

"But his limbs were borne up bravely
By the brave heart within,
And our good Father Tiber
Bare bravely up his chin."

"The captive maids there tempt
The raging tide,
'Scaped from their chains,
With Clælia for their guide."

There is a legend not less striking, and decidedly more practical, which greets the eye close at hand: "Be careful in diving. Water at this end six feet deep." And that history may be safeguarded one finds the accurate statement, "October 24, 1895, the citizens of Brookline, in town meeting assembled, voted to build a new public bath."

The swimming pool in itself is a beautiful and dainty affair, suggesting the days of Roman luxury. It is lined on the sides with white glazed brick, and the floor is covered with light adamantine mosaic, clearly seen through the perfect transparency of the water. Marble steps lead into the water at the four corners, and a heavy brass guardrail is placed at the edge of the tank. A work of art in the form of a copper gargoyle, representing a dolphin carrying the infant Neptune on his back, is utilized for the supply of a running stream of fresh water. The space around three sides of the pool is occupied by a series of forty dressing rooms, arranged in the most approved fashion, with a corridor in the rear as well as a platform in front. There is a spectator's gallery above, used also on occasion as a running track. A steam laundry and a hair drying room are special features. One notes with pleasure the practical devices for comfort and health. The atmosphere in the hall and the water in the pool are not only kept at equable temperature, but the stone floors are also heated by steam-pipes arranged beneath them. A special instruction room is provided, containing a small

pool for learners. There are rain and shower baths and porcelain tubs in a separate room, set apart and equipped for the purpose.

In this thoroughly furnished and wholesome institution the useful art of swimming is taught to hundreds of school children, who take their swimming exercises as part of their regular school instruction. Three expert teachers, who use the Prussian method of pole and belt, are employed by the town. Over six thousand swimming baths last year, with or without instruction, were taken by the pupils of the Brookline public schools. Many of the young people have acquired the art of swimming, and it is the expectation that ultimately most of the school children will learn to swim sufficiently well to save their own lives if in danger. Already school pupils who learned to swim in the Brookline public bath have saved lives by swimming and by resuscitating the apparently drowned; it is a part of the duties of the swimming instructor in the public schools to teach methods of resuscitation.

The effects of such a health-giving institution extend beyond the local community. It is stated that a considerable number of Wellesley College students and others from the Boston Normal School of Gymnastics receive swimming instruction in small classes. As many of these students are soon to be teachers, there can be no doubt that the public will receive direct benefit from the knowledge they gain of swimming and bathing. Two flourishing

clubs, the Brookline Swimming Club and the Brookline High School Swimming Association, are the immediate outcome of the movement.

It is pleasant to note the statement that, with few exceptions, both boys and girls enter upon this branch of their education with considerable enthusiasm. At the end of the school year they give a very creditable exhibition in plain and fancy swimming. Certificates of proficiency have now been issued to a considerable number. Regular lessons are given to classes of pupils from the four higher grades of the grammar schools, as well as to non-swimmers of the high school.

This new department of school work has been heartily approved by the Massachusetts Humane Society, which on December 2, 1898, passed a vote to issue a special certificate for proficiency in swimming and life-saving. An award was made at the following annual exhibition.

The promoters of the Brookline establishment confidently look upon the bath as an educator of the parent, who gets his lesson through his child. The bath institution stands, too, as an equalizer. No class distinction seems to exist among patrons, the bath being resorted to by children of rich and poor alike. As has been pointed out, one of the pleasantest things about this particular kind of education,—only secondary to its hygienic and ethical advantages,—is that it comes in an attractive and almost joyful form and not in a gloomy and repellant one.

CONTRASTS.

After the long green levels of the plain,

The primrose ways, the scented paths of thyme,

Welcome the slopes that stir the dormant vein,

The soaring cliffs that dare the feet to climb!

After the dull monotonies of life,

The placid days that with no ripple roll,

Welcome the strain, the stinging taste of strife,

The immitigable stress that tests the soul!

— *Clinton Scollard.*

MAIDS AND MATRONS OF NEW FRANCE.

III. THE MAIDS OF MONTREAL.

BY MARY SIFTON PEPPER.



HE traveler who visits Montreal for the first time, and who has read the absorbing story of its founding, feels that he is treading on consecrated ground. From the summit of the sloping green mountain, a mount royal indeed, he looks down upon the great metropolis with its stone towers pointing skyward, its sumptuous public buildings, its innumerable commemorative monuments, its busy streets and stately churches. As he comes down the eastern slope of the mountain he will see a spacious pile of stone buildings surmounted by a great dome. This is the historic Hotel Dieu. Let him pass through the gateway, up the broad flight of steps and into the long corridor.

Facing the visitor as he enters the door is a portrait of the foundress, Jeanne Mance. The face is long and delicate, with fine and regular features, clear, large, dark eyes, long straight nose, curly hair escaping from the closely fitting cap, and a dimpled chin. A short, scant cape is pinned around the shoulders, and the face, looking downward, has a sad and pensive expression that reminds the spectator of the famous Cenci portrait in the Barberini palace at Rome.

The story of this pioneer woman's life, with that of other persons who will be mentioned, is the story of the founding of Montreal. Let us follow their fortunes for awhile, accepting their divine inspirations unquestioningly, as they did, that we may give them our sympathy in their struggles to establish a Christian commonwealth in a savage-infected forest.

THOSE WHO FIRST THOUGHT OF FOUNDING MONTREAL.

A Sulpician priest of Paris, Monsieur Olier, and a prosperous tax-gatherer of Anjou, Jerome le Royer de la Dauversière, were the first to conceive the idea of founding the great city now known as Montreal.

These two individuals, living in different parts of the country, were separately inspired, at about the same time, to establish a religious colony in New France. They met one day at Meudon, near Paris, as if by a miracle, ecstatically embraced like old friends, called each other by name and took a walk in the forest near by to communicate the details of their visions and to suggest plans for their fulfilment.

The natural advantages of the place chosen for the settlement, as shown by one of Champlain's old charts, were dwelt upon largely. It was situated at the junction of two great rivers, the Ottawa and the St. Lawrence, down both of which the Indians to be converted through their ministrations brought furs to the trading posts. It was also the most advanced frontier post in all



MONTREAL, FROM MOUNT ROYAL.

Canada, and the one most exposed to attacks from the hostile Iroquois. But this feature was passed over lightly by the two enthusiasts, for their visions did not include a handful of defenseless settlers suffering unspeakable tortures at the hands of their savage captors; of almost daily penitential processions to the top of the mountain to ask for succor; of vows and offerings and castigations to invite the favor of heaven; of shrieking women writhing under the scalping-knife of the hideous redskin; of the jealousy and strife of those high in office. If they had thought of these things,

it probably would have made little difference in their plans, for there was a comfortable phrase bandied about among the founders of colonies in those days to the effect that the blood of martyrs is the seed of the church. The two devotees sauntering through the woods that afternoon, dwelt long and pleasantly on their mutual inspirations and concluded the interview by regretting that they, too, could not take part in this pious pilgrimage, but, like Moses, must view the promised land from afar.

A company was soon formed of forty-five devout men and women to be the patrons of this colony, to be consecrated to the Holy Family, and to be known as *Ville Marie de Montreal*. To act as its governor and as the representative of the association, a Christian knight and soldier was selected, Paul de

their money could not supply. This was a prudent and intelligent woman, of a courage equal to all emergencies and a strong will, who would follow them into the country to take care of their goods and of their various furnitures, and at the same time would serve as nurse to the sick and wounded. Providence had provided already for this necessity.

JEANNE MANCE SAILS FOR THE NEW WORLD.

At this time Jeanne Mance, daughter of an honorable magistrate of *Nogent-le-Roi*, was thirty-five years old. Her father, whose closing years she had attended with a filial solicitude, had been dead a year, and she was now casting about to see by what means she could put into execution her determination, taken long since, to cross over to New France and to engage in the good work of a pioneer, whatever form it might assume. She had not heard of the new colony of *Montreal*, but one of *Le Jeune's* letters had found its way into her hands, and she, with all the other devout ladies of France, had spent many hours weeping over the savage and godless state of these New World barbarians. It would take too long to describe in detail the events which led up to her final success in carrying out her determination. The most efficient instrument in the undertaking was a rich and pious widow, *Madame Bullion*, who, on condition that her name be kept secret, gave liberally for the foundation of a hospital of which *Mlle. Mance* was to be directress.

After a tedious voyage across the Atlantic the new company arrived at *Quebec* in August, 1641. The lateness of the season caused them to abandon the hope of reaching *Montreal* that year, and they were obliged to spend several months at *Quebec*. The coldness of the Canadian winter hardly equalled that which gradually sprang up between the two rival governors, *Montmagny* of *Quebec*, and *Maisonneuve* of the new colony. The older settlement acted with jealousy and envy toward this new, well-fitted-out and moneyed company. One of the *Quebec* missionaries wrote in his journal of 1641 that the *Montreal* associates probably would not get to their destination that year, adding piously, and let us hope sincerely, "and God grant that the *Iroquois* do not prevent their getting there next!" They were constantly besought by the chief men of *Quebec* to abandon their expedition, the difficulties of it being depicted in gruesome colors, and to remain there, or to form a settlement on the *Island of Orleans*



MAISONNEUVE.

Chomedey, Sieur de Maisonneuve, who, in the same miraculous manner in which all concerned in this enterprise appear, steps forth "with a sword in one hand and a psalter in the other" and makes known his willingness to assume the position of chief of the colony.

In the spring of 1641 *Maisonneuve* and a small group of strong and vigorous men gathered at *Rochelle* to sail for New France. But on the very eve of their departure they perceived that they needed an important addition to their company, a need which all

in the neighborhood. At last the exasperated Maisonneuve exclaimed, "Gentlemen, I have not come here to parley, but to act. It is my duty and my honor to form a colony at Montreal, and I would go if every tree were an Iroquois!"

And go he did. On the 8th of May, 1642, he and his companions, with the unexpected addition of Madame de la Peltrie, who had temporarily abandoned Quebec, with her servant and her furniture, started with a flat-bottomed sailboat and two rowboats up the beautiful St. Lawrence river to Montreal. There was a background of green trees, spring flowers were blooming, and brilliant song birds were filling the air with melody. Ten days later they sprang ashore and joined their songs with those of the happy birds. Darkness came on, an altar was erected, festoons of glittering fireflies were hung upon it by the graceful Madame de la Peltrie and her companions, and the priest raised his hand in blessing. "You are a grain of mustard seed," said he, "that shall rise and grow until its branches overshadow the earth. You are few, but your work is the work of God. His smile is on you, and your children shall fill the land." Such was the auspicious beginning of Montreal, and the life of the new colony went on peacefully for a year.

Mlle. Mance, seeing no patients and no prospect of any, wrote to her benefactress for permission to give the money intended for the endowment of the hospital to some needy Huron missions, but was met with a peremptory refusal. Mme. Bullion sent back the unequivocal answer that the money must be used for a hospital and nothing else.

At last there came a day when the idyllic peace of the little settlement was rudely broken. Through the treachery of some Huron fugitives a band of Iroquois was led to discover the retreat of Maisonneuve and his colonists. The Indians ventured to the very gates of the fortifications, and seized six unsuspecting French settlers, who were hewing wood near the fort. Three of the men were killed outright, the other three were led away in triumph. One of the number afterwards escaped to the fort and

related to the horrified inmates the harrowing story of the tortures and sufferings of his companions.

From this day the colony was never without apprehensions of danger from the



JEANNE MANCE.

Iroquois, whose hostility to the French colonists in America dated back thirty years to an unfortunate sally of Champlain against them at the head of a band of Algonquins. This ever impending danger was met by increased piety. Each house was placed under the protection of some saint, and the head of the family, with all the members of his household around him, at a certain hour every morning recited a fervent prayer for protection against the enemy. Many, too, were the individual petitions sent up to heaven by the terrified people. Each new arrival at the settlement seemed to try to outdo the others in pious practises, and if prayers would avail, the future of Montreal was safe. But many years of desolation and suffering still confronted the settlement.

With the Iroquois swarming to this part of the country from all directions, Monsieur Maisonneuve did not dare to delay longer the

building of the hospital. It was completed and ready for occupancy within the same year, 1644. Madame Bullion had provided liberally for the institution, furnishing forty-two thousand francs for its erection and maintenance, with a further gift of two thousand francs to Mlle. Mance to be used as she thought best. The object of the institution, as stated by the pious lady



MONUMENT TO JEANNE MANCE AND OTHER PIONEERS OF MONTREAL.

herself, was to "nourish, treat and cure the poor sick people of the country and to have them instructed in the things necessary to their salvation."

The construction of these buildings made a deep impression upon the pacific savages of the neighborhood. It was more than ever evident to them that their only safety from their hereditary foes, the Iroquois, was in obtaining the good will of these powerful palefaces, and thus find shelter with them in times of danger; although the pious writers of the day attribute this sudden attachment to their desire to be baptized and embrace the faith. The conversion of one haughty chief, particularly, is recorded with much enthusiasm. Tessouat, or le Borgne, as he was called by the French, came walking over the ice of the frozen St. Lawrence one winter day and asked Maisonneuve to receive him at Montreal and to have him baptized, threatening that if they hesitated about granting his request,

he would have the Black Robes of the Huron mission baptize him. He was turned over to the good graces of Mlle. Mance, who could now speak the Huron tongue fluently, and she immediately proceeded to instruct him in the doctrines of the Christian faith. When he was sufficiently familiar with the new creed, he was baptized, and soon became a model of piety to the others, spending whole nights preaching to his warriors the benefits of the Christian religion. He was married the day after his baptism, and was given a gun (the object most dear to the Indian heart), some land and two men to help and direct him in cultivating it. "Thus," says Jeanne Mance's biographer, in speaking of her part in this great event, "was the part of Clotilda, Ildegonda and Radegonda in the conversion of her own native France recalled to the heart of this devoted young woman!"

The Iroquois, since their discovery of the little colony, kept hemming it in with an ever narrowing circle. They had been supplied with firearms by the Dutch of New York and were eager to try them on the hated palefaces. The colonists had all been obliged to take refuge in the fort, whence they were afraid to venture out except in squads, well armed and protected by the faithful dogs brought over from France for this purpose. These proved more effective guardians than stone forts or guns. There was one in particular, named Pilot, which, with her little brood, saved Montreal from many unexpected attacks and massacres. She could scent an Iroquois a long distance, and taught her little family to accompany her into the forests to search for the redskins, biting them fiercely if they hesitated, or if a timid puppy, frightened at the moving shadows of the great forest, would sneak back to the fort, the same punishment would be meted out to it on Pilot's return. Pilot and her family also had a weakness for hunting squirrels, but they were never known to indulge in this pastime when there were Iroquois about.

One March day in 1644 Pilot and the puppies came rushing into the fort, all barking furiously, telling the colonists as plainly as they could that the enemy was nigh. The soldiers, crowding around Maisonneuve, whom they had chided for being too slow in going forth against this foe, asked him if they were never to have a chance to fight. He replied that he would lead them in an attack, and they could thus show if they were as brave as they would fain

appear. Accordingly, Maisonneuve and thirty of his soldiers sallied forth, and proceeded some distance from the fort, led by the dogs; but they had followed these guides too closely, for instead of surprising the enemy they walked straight into an ambuscade of them.

Suddenly finding themselves surrounded by about eighty yelling savages, they began to retreat, although holding back the enemy by a continuous shower of bullets. Soon their ammunition was exhausted, and they turned about suddenly and fled precipitately to the fort, leaving Maisonneuve alone to face the enemy. With a pistol in each hand he kept the savages back, all the time retreating toward the fort. Finally, as their chief rushed forward to grasp him, for, recognizing him as the leader of the palefaces, they wished to take him alive, Maisonneuve raised his pistol and shot the Indian through the heart. Horror-stricken at this calamity, the loyal barbarians turned from the panting Maisonneuve and rushed to carry away the body of their chief. Maisonneuve ran back to the fort in safety, and his brave defense was ever afterward celebrated in the annals of Montreal. There is now in the Place d'Armes, the supposed spot where it took place, a statue of Maisonneuve surrounded by those of other pioneers of Montreal, including Jeanne Mance.

After this and other sanguinary conflicts that soon afterwards took place between the French of Montreal and the Iroquois, Mlle. Mance's hospital was found to be entirely inadequate for all the wounded and dying who were brought to it. She had recourse again to her benefactress, who promptly sent her two thousand francs; also complete furniture for the hospital and chapel, including two carpets, mattresses, kitchen utensils, and above all, two oxen, three cows and twenty sheep; so that they could thenceforth have milk and wool, of which they had heretofore been sadly in need for their patients. All the domestic animals, except the horse, which was not brought over until 1663, had now been introduced into New France. When the savages saw this noble animal for the first time they expressed

great wonder and admiration for the "Frenchman's moose."

Jeanne Mance's life soon became identified with the vital interests of the colony, and all that one woman could do to draw order out of confusion, health out of sickness, happiness and tranquillity out of despair, and civilization out of barbarism, she did. No discouragement daunted her. Frequent returns were made to the mother country to bring new recruits and to raise funds wherewith to keep the colony from utter ruin. Madame Bullion continued her benefactions, finally making a gift of twenty thousand francs, the interest of which was to form the income of the hospital. This Mlle. Mance placed in the hands of Jerome de la Dauversière, who promised to invest it profitably and thus to materially increase their capital.

MARGUERITE BOURGEOIS JOINS JEANNE MANCE.

In 1653, when Jeanne Mance had been in Montreal eleven years, she was encouraged by the arrival of a countrywoman, Marguerite Bourgeois. These two women have been



OLD TOWERS, GRAND SEMINARY, MONTREAL.

known in history as the "mothers of Montreal." In one of his visits to France Monsieur Maisonneuve, the governor, had invited Marguerite to come to Montreal and to open a school for Indian and French children. He gave her a letter to one of his friends at Nantes, a rich merchant whom he called Monsieur Coq, who was to furnish her transportation to Canada, and give her certain instructions.

Disposing of her inheritance in favor of her brothers and sisters, she made her way, against innumerable obstacles, from her native village of Troyes to Nantes. There she looked in vain for the merchant. No one had ever heard of such a person, as he was really known by the name of Monsieur de Bassoniers. Marguerite, wearied and discouraged, with her little bundle of linen under her arm, traveled all day about the streets of the strange city inquiring for "Monsieur Coq, Monsieur Coq." At last, despairing and almost exhausted, she approached a great, burly man and timidly asked him if he knew where Monsieur Coq lived. "Monsieur Coq — why, I am Monsieur Coq! And if I mistake not you are the lady Monsieur Maisonneuve wrote me about a few days ago," and he cheerfully gave her his address and sent her to his house.

But if Monsieur Coq knew who she was, Madame Coq did not, and the latter was extremely indignant at her husband for sending her this strange young woman to entertain. "I will positively receive no such people into my house," she said, "you must depart forthwith!" And exhausted and almost fainting as she was, Marguerite turned and walked away. After wandering around a while longer, she determined again to appeal to Madame Coq. And as that lady was standing on the steps refusing her entrance and lecturing her on the impropriety of traveling about alone as she did, the lady's husband appeared. Explanations followed and Marguerite was afterwards hospitably entertained during the three weeks she remained in Nantes until her ship sailed. It started in July and reached Quebec September 22, 1653.

When she whom Parkman has eulogized

as the "fair ideal of Christian womanhood, a flower of earth expanding in the rays of heaven," arrived in Canada, Montreal contained but about fifty houses and only a few hundred colonists. After she had lived there four years the number of her pupils increased so greatly that it was a loss of time to go

about from house to house to teach them, and she conceived the idea of building a church and of having her little pupils gather there, that she might instruct them all together. Was ever ambition more vaulting! Here was a woman without other possessions than the clothes she wore, inspired with a desire to build a church! She went to Monsieur Maisonneuve and modestly stated her wishes. He generously gave her a tract of land, the only commodity that was not scarce in the New World. After many tedious and vexatious delays, the most serious of which came from an officious bishop, who had never



"NOTRE DAME DE BONSECOURS."
(Founded by Marguerite Bourgeois.)

heard of the modest little woman who was teaching the girls of Montreal and had come there to build a seminary for boys, she at last succeeded in her undertaking. This edifice, called "Notre Dame de Bonsecours," was the first stone church erected in Montreal. It was destroyed by fire in 1754, but upon the same spot was erected another which is now visited by tourists as one of the landmarks of the old city. It is, in truth, a worthy monument to the inspired labors of one of Canada's pioneer women.

While Jeanne Mance and Marguerite Bourgeois were carrying on their labors in Montreal other young women were being educated at a school in France, under the supervision of Monsieur Dauversière, to lend them a helping hand. Early in the year 1659 the two "mothers of Montreal" revisited

Marguerite Bourgeois

MARGUERITE BOURGEOIS' AUTOGRAPH.

France, each with the purpose of seeking recruits for her particular work. Three of the young women of Dauversière's school at La Flèche had been selected already to accompany Jeanne Mance back to Canada. They were Catherine Macé, daughter of a rich merchant, Mlle. Maillet, and Judith de Bresoles, who had been in this school for seven years studying medicine and chemistry. Marguerite Bourgeois too succeeded in gaining three recruits for her school in Montreal. Besides these there were placed under her charge fourteen young women for whom she was to find husbands in the new colony.

After nearly a year's absence the two mothers again found themselves in Montreal. Soon after their return an event occurred which threatened to end the careers of Jeanne Mance and her companions in the New World and send them back to France. Dauversière died, and with the news of his death came that of the loss of their twenty thousand francs endowment, for he had used it to pay his debts. The hospital no longer had a fund to maintain it, and Mlle. Mance and her associates were recalled to France. But her indomitable spirit was not thus to be overcome. She appealed to the colonists. Realizing what the recall of these heroic women would mean to them in their struggles for a foothold in this savage land, they agreed, unanimously, to bear the expense of their maintenance until things took a more favorable turn. Their bounty immediately took shape in the form of roasted pumpkins and cakes of Indian meal. "By this means," says a gentle sister historian, thirty years later, "they were at least kept from starving to death."

They were lodged temporarily in an upper room which had to be reached by a ladder, and of which, says the chronicler, "poverty was the only ornament." During the long northern winter they suffered greatly from the cold, which was so intense that they were obliged to thaw out their bread in the morning before eating it, and to sweep out the snow which had accumulated in drifts through the large cracks in the wall.

But the hospital work was not interrupted. Judith de Bresoles developed a remarkable talent for making soups out of almost nothing, such as people had never tasted before. Dainty bits to satisfy the most capricious appetites were placed before the wondering patients, who considered their origin nothing less than divine. "This comes from heaven, does it not?" asks a half delirious bush-ranger. "From heaven indeed," replies Mlle. de Bresoles. Catherine Macé and Mlle. Maillet found their happiness in performing the menial duties of the hospital, which were occasionally interrupted by supernatural visions. In one of these, granted to Mlle. Maillet, the two defunct founders, Dauversière and Olier, appeared and assured her that this work would never perish, that all the tempests that assailed it would never uproot it from the soil in which it was planted like a rock, ending with the cheerful statement that poverty



BREAD OVEN, CAPE A L'AIGLE.

and suffering were necessary to its existence. However, the happy French nature of these exiles rose above all pitiful trials.

CRUELTY OF THE IROQUOIS.

After two years of this life of privation the condition of the hospital became more prosperous through various benefactions and endowments in France. But almost simul-

taneously with this improvement in their fortunes the Iroquois again swooped down upon them and all bodily comfort was sacrificed to mental agony and distress. The almost defenseless settlers were thrown into a state of apprehension, for the prowling savages again began to infest the neighborhood and horrible massacres were of frequent occurrence. Mlle. Morin, a young woman who came over from France three years after the others, gives a vivid description of this period.

"We were daily confronted with the frightful spectacle of the tortures to which they (the Iroquois) subjected our neighbors and friends who happened to fall into their hands. All this gave us a horror of these barbarians that only those who have been in like extremity can appreciate. For my part, death would have been preferable to a life involved in such dangers, and plunged into sympathy for the horrible sufferings of our poor brothers.

"Every time our people were attacked, the tocsin sounded to summon the inhabitants to the rescue, and to warn those who were working in dangerous places to withdraw promptly, which each one did at the tap of the bell. My sister Bresoles and I ascended to the belfry that the man-servant might go out against the enemy. From this elevated place we often saw the conflict, which filled us with such fear that we ran down all trembling, believing our last hour had come. When the tocsin was sounded, my sister Maillet almost fainted from fear, and my sister Macé, all the time the alarm lasted, remained in a state of speechlessness pitiful to see. Both went to the chapel to prepare for death, or withdrew into their rooms. As soon as I learned that the Iroquois had withdrawn I went and told them, which seemed to comfort and give them new life. My sister Bresoles was more courageous; the fear, which she could not help but feel, did not prevent her from tending her sick and receiving those who were brought in wounded or dying."

It was the hero Dollard and his sixteen brave young associates of Montreal who freed the country from this scourge for a long time to come at the expense of their own lives. But before this many of the best men of Montreal had been sacrificed; among them the two Sulpician priests who had come over with Mlle. Mance on her last return from France, and the courageous

Major Closse, who had for years defended the colony with great valor. "I only came over to Canada," said the dying man, "to die for God, serving Him as a soldier, and would have left here and gone to fight the Turks rather than to be deprived of this glory."

THE DEATH OF JEANNE MANCE.

Ten years more passed away and Jeanne Mance too finished her course on earth. Her last years were full of suffering, but she was surrounded by faithful friends who, by their tender care and sympathy, soothed the passage of this heroic soul into eternity. She died in 1673, two years after Mme. de la Peltre and one after Mother Mary Guyard. Her work was well done. Montreal, the great commercial center of Canada, was founded, and the hospital, the hope and inspiration of her life, was firmly established. Its numbers were augmented from year to year by recruits from France, and, as has been said already, it may be seen today, after two centuries and a half of vicissitudes from fire, war and famine, on the same spot, one of the largest and most prominent buildings of Montreal.

The visible results of Marguerite Bourgeoise' long life in Canada was the institution of a band of young women who were bound by vows to teach the young, the building of a church, and the establishment of schools for the instruction of Indian and French children. She died January 12, 1700. Her heart, which had beaten with pain at the cry of suffering childhood, with agony at the shriek of the tortured victim of Iroquois cruelty, with shame at the contentions of Christian brotherhoods, and with rapture when even one little child received the anointing drops of baptism—that heart, encased in its silver covering, now rests in the chapel of a convent where she so long labored and loved.



HOSPITAL FOUNDED BY JEANNE MANCE IN 1642.

SOURCES AND USES OF POETRY.

BY WILLIAM C. LAWTON,

(Adelphi College.)



As man develops, his needs multiply. The arts attempt to satisfy his demands. But the craving for beauty is almost as old and deep-rooted as the social instinct itself. Hence each art straightway tends to become a fine art, giving also an agreeable shape to that which sates our wants. Language supplies a primal need. As soon as men attempt to devise pleasing and permanent form for uttered speech, literature begins.

Fickle and erratic as the savage or barbarian seems, there is in him a curiously persistent vein of conservatism. We have all seen it in that cognate type of life close at hand, our own boy. With all his audacious wilfulness, the rough tradition of his street or school is sacred in his eyes. He "counts out" with his grandsire's gibberish, plays his games with the traditional rules. The hut, the snow fort, the dam, the raft, shall be built as it hath been aforetime: until, of course, a young Franklin or Edison arises, not with book learning, but in the might of sense, to improve the pattern.

Even so it is with early man. Hence each art brings down to us,—to the age of culture, of analysis, of excessive self-consciousness,—the tool-marks and finger-prints of the crudest origins. The triglyph is the rude ornament for the end of the forgotten wooden beam. The metope still bears the name and general form of a "window," though even the Periclean Greek had never seen one that could be opened. And so, any attempt to grope toward the beginnings of literature must be largely guided by the traces still marking the elaborated masterpiece which has outlived all the earlier experiments. The Homeric epic, by many critics held to be the best example of conscious mastery, is at the same time an important source of knowledge as to the world's age of childhood.

The forms of every art are dictated in large degree from first to last by the unchangeable conditions of earthly life. Gravitation, the strength of materials like wood, stone and metal, even the stature and reach of man himself, limit the architect of palace and cathedral, as they did him who first built shelter for the fetich of the clan.

Far more strictly even than the builder to his brick or quarried stone, is the singer bound down to his unchanging unit of measure, the single full breath. This sets a limit to the ordinary clause or simple sentence, and, what is merely a specialized form of the same thing, to the poetical line, the verse. This varies, in reality, but little in length. When many distinct sounds are packed into it, they must be uttered more rapidly. Eleven syllables of

"O young Lochinvar is come out of the West,"
may take no more time than eight in

"The harp at Nature's advent strung,"
or even than five only in

"Blow, blow, breathe and blow,"
which only gives freer play to the sonorous open vowels. The long and stately hexameter is the exception that proves the rule. It still betrays itself clearly as two verses rather than one, the misnamed *cæsura* being in truth the suture of the couplet:

"Bent like a laboring oar || that toils in the surf of the ocean."

Even the simplest verse of six accents is ready to break near the middle,

"And like a wounded snake || drags its slow length along,"

simply because we must breathe meantime.

Of course the age of which we are thinking is far before the invention of books. Script, and still more the printed page, too often hide from us the truth, that language lives only on the lip of man. The art of Gutenberg in particular has tended in dangerous degree to bar our ears, to restrict our eyes to these ignoble typeblots, and in general to close the nobler avenues of approach to the royal chamber where the imagination sits enthroned. If, for instance, Tennyson's "Crossing the Bar" had been first heard in Westminster as the poet's own clay passed to its rest, or Kipling's "Recessional" as actually intoned at the Victorian Jubilee, would not the memory, at least of the happy few, be immensely enriched? Such, we may be sure, were always the original and natural conditions amid which poetry sprang into vigorous life.

Our examples have been, naturally, all in

So, poetry was from the beginning a truthful picture of life: infinitely more truthful than any commonplace chronicle of daily incidents, if only because the stirring crisis called for him who could strike the dominant chord, who could see the real meaning of events, and set them vividly before the minds and hearts of men. Not until such a master arose would a song be created which the clan would care to keep alive in the memory by repeated public use. The real delights of victory, the actual misery of enslavement, must nerve the arm of him who is to fight for hearth and child. The home-village, in its well-chosen forest nook or craggy security, might be vividly recalled on the distant foray. Even the exploits of the dead chieftain, recounted by the harper at his grave, must appeal in some degree to the memories, not wholly to the imagination, even of the fondest listener.

Nevertheless, we are already at the turn and the rise of the road. Scant and feeble indeed is his art who only offers us that which was already ours.

"That song do men most heartily applaud
Which rings the newest in the listener's ear,"

says the magician who devised Odysseus' tale of world-wide wandering: for he it is, speaking through Telemachus' boyish lips. Even the story of a heroic life must be handed on, in the vocal tradition of a courtly song, as princely mourners and a listening people would wish to remember it, refracted through the long unrecorded years and forever glorified by a kingly death at last. Realism will hardly avail here.

This, however, is but the easier half of the task imposed by mourners on the courtly singer. Death on the battle-field shall leave a fair fame for us on earth? Ay: but to what Walhalla fares the reluctant parting soul? Here already the minstrel must face a problem where no mere realism can breathe at all, and yet the note of triumphant certainty and fullest confidence can alone be struck.

There never was true poet, then, who could be content to sing merely the "thing as he sees it," with the unanointed eye of the body, for the god—or the human overlord—of "things as they are." Let us make no appeal here to Plato, or Emerson, or any other bulwark of Idealism. We need but turn to another equally earnest strain of Kipling himself:

"Thy face is far from this our war,
Our call and counterory;
I shall not find thee quick and kind,
Nor know thee till I die.

Enough for me in dreams to see
And touch thy garment's hem:
Thy feet have trod so near to God,
I may not follow them!"

This far-off cry is sped to the "True Romance," who is clearly no Venus of the Sewers! Again the young East Indian singer of manful daily toil prays to a God:

"Who lest all thought of Eden fade
Bring'st Eden to the craftman's brain,
Godlike to muse o'er His own Trade,
And manlike, stand with God again."

Ah, yes, he has never felt even in the crudest fashion the thrill of the true artist, who does not recognize in it, above all else, the creative impulse. Herein the maker of beauty feels himself, as at no other instant, sharing the divine nature itself, to his own infinitesimal capacity: drawing close as poor stumbling, purblind man may come to the Oversoul. The artist is, indeed, possessed by a nature higher than himself. His whole life has been, let us trust, one long preparation to entertain that imperial guest, who at his coming uses the minstrel's faculties, seemingly in defiance of their owner's will.

The calmest, most self-controlled of the true sons of song, Longfellow, nevertheless avows, in his rare utterances of full self-confession, that he too is as much a dreamer of the dream divine as Sappho or Shelley.

"As come the white sails of ships
O'er the Ocean's verge;
As comes the smile to the lips,
The foam to the surge,

So come to the Poet his songs.

"His and not his are the lays
He sings; and their fame
Is his, and not his; and the praise
And the pride of a name.

"For voices pursue him by day,
And haunt him by night,
And he listens, and needs must obey,
When the Angel says 'Write!'"

This experience of "possession" does not sound credible, nor even wholly sane, I suppose, to any man who has no memory of his own to aid in interpreting it. Yet the universal testimony, from the truest artists of every age, *must* be accepted. It begins with Homer's appeal for inspiration,

"For we but rumor hear, and nothing know."

Pagan and Christian poets alike testify that an alien enthusiasm masters them completely whenever all their faculties are most fully harmonized and vitalized. The poet is the true preacher, prophet, seer, who lays hold, better than other men, on "the substance of things hoped for, the evidence of things not seen."

Therefore he sees real life more accurately than we. If our span is indeed, as we all wish to believe, a mere petty segment of an infinite cosmic existence, then he beholds it most truly who views it always and only against this infinite background. Many a savage race believes that their heroes go straight to Olympus, Walhalla, the happy hunting-grounds, heaven. Often they even worship their ancestors as divinities, able to sway the fate of living men. Is not the crudest of such faiths better than modern materialism? Even among savage rapacious clans may have arisen, in all ages teachers and preachers, who, by their ruder lights,

"Showed the path to heaven, and led the way."

We are glad to believe

"That in even savage bosoms
There are longings, yearnings, strivings
For the good they comprehend not,
That the feeble hands and helpless,
Groping blindly in the darkness,
Touch God's right hand in that darkness
And are lifted up and strengthened."

At any rate, wherever the rosy glow of the imagination at once reveals and idealizes the rugged features of man's life, there true poetry has arisen, and there alone.

Doubtless the handworker, the winner of bread or of battles, has been inclined in all ages to count the dreamer of dreams among the idlest of the many drones that live upon his own toil. No error could be more radical. Even in the economic sense, no other member is so large a contributor to the wealth of the community as is the poet.

Singlehanded, man is the most helpless of animals. Even if not at once overthrown in deadly strife with his own or a lower race, he must fritter away his energy in many diverse and uncongenial tasks. In a bleak climate, shelter, clothing, variety of food, are but the first of his wants. But in order to unite their forces and divide duly their tasks, men need, first of all, an adequate organ of intercommunication: a language. A dialect can have no stability, and no wide currency, until it gives utterance to common needs in memorable form. Besides words for visible objects and actions, expression is demanded for things abstract and unseen: as, justice, retribution, valor, cowardice, victory, flight, joy, agony, shame, discipline, loyalty, gratitude. Such concepts can be outlined, as a rule, only figuratively, by discovering picturesque analogies and metaphors. Hence the earnest speech of the savage is full of poetry, not yet fossilized

as in our own. Thus the root *reg* meant, apparently, no more than straight, plumb. *Rez* was probably at first merely the village champion set at the head of the little file on a foray. "Regular," "regulate," "rectitude," "correct," "resurrect," or their equivalents, with dozens of other words, represent so many ingenious figures developed from the single stem. The abstractions seem colorless and prosaic now, but in the real utterance of the barbarian they are still poetic.

"Straight between them ran the pathway:
Never grew the grass upon it.
Singing birds, that utter falsehood,
Could not breed ill will between them:"

that is, between the clansmen who

"Spake with naked hearts together."

Into the very structure of each language is built, as into the slow-rising coral reef, the lifework of myriad nameless forgotten toilers: the poets of their day.

But again. The clan must acquire a sense of its own continuous life, a strong bond of loyalty among its members, a willingness to undertake large united labors for the eventual benefit of all. The typical natural man, like the Neapolitan *lazzaroni*, will exert himself only when he is growing hungry, and but just long enough to assure the next meal. How, out of such raw material, is a Sparta or a Rome evolved?

In the beginning, no doubt, come such fights as when the red dog of the Dekkan invaded Mowgli's jungle. The first reluctant union, among men as among wolves, may well have been enforced by the alternative certainty of utter and instant destruction.

The importance of music and song in battle may still be clearly seen, whenever men fall back once more, as in our day we, and our kin beyond the sea, have so dismally fallen, into the barbarism of war: war glorious though terrible in self-defense or generous championship of wronged peoples, purely diabolical in selfish aggression, covert or avowed: and yet, out of its horrors has sprung the civic life we know. In "God Save the Queen," the "Marseillaise," "Die Wacht am Rhein," words and music are inseparable. No less essential, in the soldier's mind, is the accompanying tramp of a thousand marching feet. Doubtless, even before the dawn of history, the cause of slow-gaining organization and progress has won or lost countless fierce contests, wherein, as at Salamis, the bugle or the war-song steadied the wavering line better

than the freshest regiment of reserves could have done. It is an eyewitness, a hero of the day, who tells us how, as the glorious morning broke over the Salaminian straits:

"First from the Greeks the loud resounding din
Of song triumphant came; and shrill at once
Echo responded from the island rock.
Then upon all barbarians terror fell,
Thus disappointed: not as if for fight
The Hellenes sang the holy psalm then,
But valiantly to battle setting forth.
The bugle with its note inflamed them all.
And presently was heard
A mighty cry:

'Come, oh ye sons of Greeks,
Make free your country, make your children free,
Your wives, the fanes of your ancestral gods,
And your sires' tombs: for all we now contend!'"

That appeal saved for us the civilization we have today. It was the appeal of noble utterance to reasoning minds; but it was upborne upon the wings of music and song.

Who can estimate the value of "Dixie," or "Maryland, My Maryland" to the one side; of "John Brown's Body," or Mrs. Howe's "Battle Hymn of the Republic" to the other, in our own great struggle? If we, stoical, silent, swayed by slow-growing inner conviction, are still blown to a flame of enthusiasm by a snatch of song, by a bar or two from "Auld Lang Syne" or "Tramp, Tramp, Tramp," what wonder that the barbarian needs the impassioned utterance of elemental impulses to make him face danger, or certain death, with a cheer?

The vengeance of the gods, in this life and the next, upon the coward and the traitor: the rewards, here and hereafter, for the valiant hero: the exploits of the past that make the king, and the king's royal line, worthy of every clansman's loyal devotion: these things the scald, the minstrel, the bard, and he alone, can utter in words simple, sensuous, passionate enough to fire the throbbing heart of each and all. The Tyrtæus-myth is too well invented not to have been true a hundred times over. He who makes the songs of a people is its chief champion, on the field of blood or in that slower struggle wherein

"Freedom slowly broadens down."

In every age, in every great task, it is the same. Full mutual understanding, adequate sense of the larger common life and the common national interests, and, lastly, burning, glowing enthusiasm, these alone can lift man to the level where the greatest exploits are possible. To such motives the creators of language and literature are the chief con-

tributors. Homer might have invented his Achilles. A real Achilles must have been forgotten in a decade, a generation, a century at best, but for Homer or his yet more nameless predecessors. The Homeric Achilles was the ideal type of Greek chivalry. It mattered little whether he had ever drawn breath. It mattered infinitely that Themistocles, Epaminondas, Alexander, envied and imitated him. When we thus consider the influence of the poet on all aftertime, even Clough's cry no longer seems extravagant:

"Ages of heroes fought and fell
That Homer in the end might tell."

We need not go back, however, to the age of myth. There is one unhappy land, where volcanic upheavals within, and wave after wave of invasion from without, have within historical times reduced all social, political and moral conditions to a state more atrocious than normal savagery, while yet the remains of the highest elder civilization lay in unexampled profusion on every hand, making it possible for one brief life to build such a bridge as in earlier days could be reared only upon the thankless toil of uncounted silent generations,

"The dead, forgotten and unknown."

Six hundred years ago, every petty princeling of the fair distracted peninsula, nay, every ill-paid captain of a mercenary band, looked askance in scornful pity at the meager, pallid, dark-browed Florentine exile, who wandered ever with a hungry heart. Not even a handful of loyal folk, a trumpet, a voice, had he at command: only a poor roll of manuscript, left to the caprice of a hostile world when the unbending Ghibelline had ended his wanderings at last.

What had he done? Simply made the dialect of his ungrateful city worthy to be the speech of a united Italian nation. To him every European poet since his day, and therefore every people as well, owe a debt they cannot even estimate: it is in the very air they breathe. Upon the kindred arts of design, also, his glowing imagination has set, a thousand times over, its indelible stamp. Statecraft owes more to him than to a hundred Machiavellis. Victor Emmanuel was indebted for his realm at last to that forlorn outlaw of a far-off century rather than to Bonaparte, or Cavour, or Garibaldi.

What we can credit in this case so largely to one great name is due in many lands, perhaps all the world over, to his guild. Poetry is the chief creatrix of national life.

THE ANGEL OF ASSASSINATION.

BY CARL T. CLINTON.



IN the years preceding the French Revolution, life in the provinces of France was uneventful; daily tasks were performed in the unvarying routine peculiar to country people, and the seasons passed without remark. The simple farmer folk, it is true, were oppressed by heavy taxes, and failing crops sometimes brought suffering and wretchedness. The reign of Louis XVI. had opened with a promise of better things than had been known in that of his predecessor. This promise had been only partly redeemed, yet until about 1787 the times bore less heavily than when Louis XV. sat upon the throne. No matter how hard the lot of the peasant, he was never so downtrodden as the poor man in the city. Usually the farmer was able to secure a livelihood, mean though it might be, from his little plot of ground. The proletariat of the town, on the other hand, was a pauper as soon as his employment failed. In the worst years, the hills and meadows of France were green, the country people were quiet, and life, however hard, had some redeeming aspects. While not an era of national prosperity, it was a time of peace.

But with the advent of the Revolution, even provincial matters underwent a change. Popular opinion in the country was hardly less strong than in the cities, for in both were felt the burdensome inequalities of the prevailing system of government. There had been a time when the nobles formed the army, the clergy offered the prayers, and the lower classes furnished the revenue. In some respects this order had altered: the nobility no longer shed all the blood, the clergy at court did little praying, but the Third Estate still paid the bulk of the taxes.

As the Revolution progressed and the people came into power, violence succeeded peaceful measures. The frightful days of June and August, 1792, led the way to the Reign of Terror. The death of the king early in 1793 foreshadowed the proscription of all who were of noble blood. Not only were the towns and cities scenes of carnage, but even the provincial districts were sounding with the cries of the revolutionists. The countryman was filled with a bloodthirsti-

ness not less dreadful than that of his brother in the city. His vengeance was not satisfied by the destruction of ancient draw-bridges and medieval towers; the whole feudal system had become hateful, and the master was doomed to perish with his castle.

Nearly a quarter of a century before the dreadful days of 1793, when the prisons of Paris were emptied only to supply the guillotine, a child was born in Normandy. Now, in the midst of the strife and the bloodshed of the Reign of Terror, Charlotte Corday, a woman grown, came to the front. A gentle young woman, she committed a deed which the boldest man feared to undertake. Reared in a convent, the daughter of a country nobleman, descended from a good Norman family, she stands forth one of the remarkable figures of the times.

The story of her life is brief, and, until July, 1793, uneventful. Her full name was Marie Anne Charlotte Corday d'Armans, but she is generally known as Charlotte Corday. Her mother having died while Charlotte was yet a child, the young girl entered an abbey at Caen, near which city she had been born in 1768. When the convent was closed because of the Revolution, she was a handsome young woman in her twentieth year. She was of medium height, well proportioned, naturally graceful and dignified. Her face was oval, with features regular and beautiful. Her blue eyes and light-brown hair imparted to her a tender, refined expression, which denoted high character and singular strength of purpose. Until the convent was closed, the current of her life had run in quiet ways. Except for the death of her mother no great sorrow had been her portion. Though her father was poor, she had lived in comfort; in undisturbed quiet she seemed destined to pass her life. How soon all was changed! The people, ground down beyond all forbearance, demanded their rights, and strong in their wrath, overawed king, nobility and clergy. Charlotte left the calm of the convent for the clamor of the city; the silence of the school for the sounds of the streets.

On leaving the convent, Charlotte went to the home of an aunt in Caen. Here several years were quietly spent watching the course

of events. The young girl, with a zeal then rare among the women of France, had studied carefully the theory of government and politics, had read deeply in philosophy and ancient history, and had formed ideals of republicanism which she hoped to see realized in France. But it was not until the overthrow of the Girondists, May 31, 1793, that she conceived the possibility of herself taking an active part in affairs.

For months the guillotine at Paris had been busy. Day after day the tumbrels carried victims from the prison to the place of execution; day by day new victims of the Convention's wrath were proscribed, dragged to the dungeon, and in their turn sent forth to death. The king was executed and riot reigned. The Girondists were less radical and bloodthirsty than the majority of deputies, and desired to punish the leaders of the September massacre. Danton, Robespierre and Marat, powerful and unscrupulous, hesitated at nothing.

The Girondist representatives — now a minor faction of the revolutionary party — fled from Paris to the provinces, where they endeavored to recruit an army to overthrow the Jacobins, the radicals of the Revolution. At Caen, they were met by the young girls of the city, who were led by Charlotte Corday. The refugee deputies established their headquarters at Caen, and began to plan an active campaign. Many persons attended the meetings of the Girondists, among others Charlotte and her father. Here she was strongly influenced against the Jacobin leaders, especially Marat; and, believing that if he were dead the fall of his faction must follow, she resolved to end his life.

Early in July, 1793, she went to Paris, and attempted to arrange a meeting with the Jacobin leader. He was too ill to attend the sessions of the Convention, where she had hoped to kill him, and she was compelled to seek him at his home. Here, on the evening of July 13, the fearful deed was accomplished — by the hand of one of her gentlest maids France was freed from a monster. Charlotte was seized, dragged to prison, given a hurried trial, and condemned to death. On the evening of the 17th of July, she was executed, going to her death with the courage inspired by her high purpose.

But she gave her life in vain, for the stroke which caused the death of Marat seemed to have struck the heart of France. Before his fall, blood had been flowing in streams; now it gushed forth in a torrent. The people having tasted blood, gave themselves up to

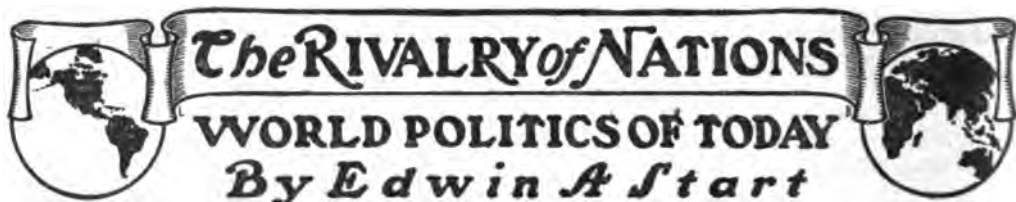
every kind of excess, and the Reign of Terror was supreme throughout the land. Marat was paid divine honors and prayers were offered to his memory. Although his tragic death created an extraordinary impression upon the members of the revolutionary party, how needless seems the sacrifice of Charlotte Corday's young life. She saved no one, for the proscriptions of Danton and Robespierre, whose tool Marat had been, continued; the prisons remained full, and the dreadful work of the guillotine did not cease. It was not until a year later, when Robespierre himself was sent to the guillotine, that the Convention was able to restore order and put an end to the Reign of Terror.

Her tender regard for others is shown by the letter she wrote her father the evening she was arrested:

"Pardon me, my dear father, for disposing of my life without your permission. I have prevented the slaughter of many an innocent victim, and put a stop to very many other crimes. By daybreak, this nation will rejoice that it is freed from a tyrant. I hope that you will not suffer; in any case, I believe that you will have defenders in Caen. I have chosen Gustav Doulcet for defender; such a deed admits of no defense, it is only for form. Farewell, my dear father. I bid you to forget me, or rather rejoice in my destiny; the cause that guided it is beautiful. I kiss my sisters whom I love with all my heart, and all my friends. Do not forget Corneille's words: 'The crime and not the scaffold causes shame.'"

Although she committed a shocking crime, she was actuated by the highest motives. It was patriotism, pure and simple, a love of country as noble and unselfish as it is exceptional, that impelled her to make the sacrifice. For she was a sacrifice, and for political freedom she suffered martyrdom as truly as did any Christian for the sake of religious opinion. She was sustained by no fervor of religious zeal, she did not act under the stimulus of visions such as fortified the heart of Joan of Arc, but alone and unaided, with high purpose and firm resolve, she did her duty as she saw it, nor hesitated because it seemed too hard. Lamartine says:

"There are deeds of which men are no judges, and which mount, without appeal, direct to the tribunal of God. There are human actions so strange a mixture of weakness and strength, pure intent and culpable means, error and truth, murder and martyrdom, that we know not whether to term them crime or virtue. The culpable devotion of Charlotte Corday is among those acts which admiration and horror would leave eternally in doubt, did not morality reprove them. Had we to find for this sublime liberatrix of her country, and generous murderess of a tyrant, a name . . . we would coin a phrase combining the extreme of admiration and horror, and term her the Angel of Assassination."



The RIVALRY of NATIONS

WORLD POLITICS OF TODAY

By Edwin A. Start

Summary of Preceding Chapters.


[Chapters I.-IV. appeared in the October issue. The first was an introductory discussion of the significance of the present age, the expansion of the nations, the industrial revolution, the growth of democracy, and the world problems resulting from the interplay of these elements. Chapter II. explained the politics of Europe in the middle of the century, as turning upon the ideas of nationality and the revolutionary democracy; with the Eastern question as shaped in the Crimean war. In Chapters III. and IV. the development of England and France respectively in the last half century were traced, with especial reference to the rise of English democracy and the growth of republican government in France.]

[Chapters V.-VIII. in the November number considered in a similar way the other four great powers of Europe, Germany, Italy, Austria-Hungary, and Russia.]

Required Reading for the Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle.

CHAPTER IX.

THE EASTERN QUESTION REOPENED.

UROPE passed one of the mile-stones of its political history in 1871. Forces that had been at work for decades then culminated; the old policy of the Restoration, that had already been subjected to great strain, was finally broken down; and international politics in a reorganized Europe found new issues and new methods. Bismarck's hard and rapid hammering had forced Austria out of the German body and set it to the solution of the sufficiently difficult problems of its own complex state system. The same stern process exposed the policy of bluff embodied in the pretentious vacillation of the French emperor, destroyed the empire and made way for the realization of a permanent national republican government in France; but in doing this it inflicted a terrible humiliation upon one of the proudest peoples of Europe, leaving behind bitter hatred and longing for revenge. Driven onward by the same imperious statesmanship that had won its life, the new German empire secured recognition as the first military state of the world and the preponderant power of continental Europe. The blow that demolished Napoleon's imperial house of cards completed that union of Italy which he had alternately encouraged and obstructed, entered a sixth great power in the European arena, and destroyed the temporal power of the papacy. Many minor changes marked the advance of national adjustments that had been at work for decades. But this did not mean that Europe was prepared to return to its earlier conservative attitude; rather were the reorganized states in a position to assemble their forces for new and greater flights of national ambition. The long period following the Napoleonic wars had been one of partial paralysis and uncertainty. That following the national readjustments of 1871 has been one of growth and activity, and the introduction of world-wide problems—the opening of an era of world politics, as distinguished from those that are occidental, or oriental, or continental.

The direction in which the new play of old forces would begin was foreshadowed by the daring action of Russia in October, 1870, when Napoleon's downfall was assured, in declaring itself freed from the obligations imposed upon it by the Treaty of Paris of 1856 and announcing its intention of maintaining as large a fleet in the Black sea as it might deem advisable. When Prince Gortschakoff prepared this stroke of policy, he feared a war with Europe, for which Russia was ill prepared, but he counted on the indisposition of Europe for further war and the temporary decline of anti-Russian sentiment. This confidence was justified.

The European mile-stone of 1871.

The era of world politics.

The abrogation of the Treaty of Paris.

England and Austria protested, but nothing was done. Bismarck proposed a conference, and on March 13, 1871, at London, the second article of the Treaty of Paris, that limiting Russia's Black sea fleet, was annulled, and Russia was given a free hand. Even Turkey, which was so deeply interested, was quiescent. For the moment the skies seemed clear, but the Eastern question had been reopened, and the cloud no bigger than a man's hand was already appearing upon the horizon. Autocratic Russia, holding steadfastly to its hereditary policy, which pointed toward Constantinople as the needle points toward the pole, was always husbanding its resources for a new advance. The national spirit of pan-Slavism, the religious fervor of orthodox Christianity, and the desire for an unrestricted southern outlet, all pointed in the same direction.

The Eastern question reopened.

The Eastern question was not a new, nor even a recent one. In varying forms it was almost as old as European civilization,—as old as the heroic days of Marathon and Salamis, when the elder Greeks



A BIT OF OLD CONSTANTINOPLE.

turned back the tide of Persian attack and saved the western world for its struggles and its strenuous, onward-moving life. It reappeared when the vitality of Greek civilization asserted itself in the eastern part of the Roman empire; when Constantine founded his new Rome on the Bosphorus and that sharp distinction grew up which resulted in the separation of the Eastern and Western empires, and the Greek and Roman churches. In this form it was an important factor in such international politics as the middle ages knew. It took a dangerous shape in the fourteenth century, when the Turkish wedge was pushed into Europe, to remain there an alien element—religiously, socially, politically. Even then it was long before the ancient stronghold on the Bosphorus yielded to attack in 1453, and became the capital of a new Mohammedan empire. For some centuries the forces of Mohammedanism, under the masterly direction of a brave, able, and warlike race, threatened the integrity of Christian Europe, requiring at times the expenditure of a desperate energy to repel its attacks. Then there settled upon the Ottoman that fatalistic apathy which oriental society and the religion of Islam inevitably produce, and the terrible Turk relapsed into "the sick man of Constantinople," maintained in his European domains by the jealousies of the Christian powers, which dare not allow his contracted, but rich and important, possessions to go to their rivals. Hence, although for several years his political demise has been expected by those with whom the wish is father to the thought, the sultan still rules in Constantinople, the *muezzin* still calls the Mohammedan faithful to prayers from the minarets of the first Christian emperor's metropolitan city; and barbarity as frightful as that of their wild ancestors from Asian fastnesses is masked by Turkish statesmen with a diplomacy as suave and shrewd, a courtesy as gracious and as meaningless, as ever characterized the most enlightened foreign office of western Europe.

An ancient question.

The Ottoman rise and decline.

Turkish wit against western strength.

Russia and Turkey.

In the sixteenth century the tide of Turkish invasion rolled up over the Balkan peninsula to the Danube and threatened Vienna itself. Russia had from the earliest times been attracted by the riches at the south. When the Turk held Constantinople, a holy city to the orthodox Greek Christian, and the alliance of the princely house of Muscovy with the imperial family of Palæologus had given Russia a claim to the imperial eagles and the headship of the Greek Christians, there was added to ambition and greed the plausible excuse of a holy war and an imperial



ABDUL HAMID II.,
SULTAN OF TURKEY.

title. The inhospitable regions that lay between Russia and Constantinople embarrassed the effort that the tsars repeatedly made to reach the coveted prize and every attempt was checked, with results disappointing to Russia. Eight of these attempts at interference in the affairs of the Turkish empire have been made by Russia since 1711. The first was by Peter the Great and was a failure; the second in 1739, under the Empress Anna Ivanovna, secured a small tract of Servian territory; the third, under Catherine II., after a long struggle with the Turks in arms and with Europe in diplomacy, secured for Russia the northern coast of the Black sea and the bank of the Dniester river; but in her second Turkish war Catherine's bold policy met a check and much that had been

Greek war for independence.

gained was lost. Alexander I., in pursuance of his arrangement with Napoleon for a division of Europe into two great empires, pushed the Russian designs upon Turkish territory, but after his break with Napoleon in 1812 was able to hold only the little district of Bessarabia, while Moldavia, Wallachia and Bulgaria were given up. The sixth and seventh attempts of Russia were made in the reign of Nicolas I. The Greek war for independence in 1827 gave the occasion for action by which Russia secured some territory in the Caucasus, the Danubian delta, and a guarantee of autonomy for Moldavia, Wallachia, and Servia, with recognition of the independence of Greece. The results of the second essay of Nicolas in the settlement of the Eastern question in accordance with the Russian point of view, bringing about the Crimean war, have already been considered. Russia lost all that it had secured in 1827, and the great powers assumed in concert that supervision of Eastern affairs which Russia had sought to secure exclusively. After 1856 this concert held Russia in check for twenty years, except for the latter's seizure of the opportunity offered by the fall of its most active enemy in the west to obtain the abrogation of the obnoxious article that hindered its movements in the Black sea. Fully restored now to good standing in the concert, Russia watched for a new opportunity to reassert itself in Turkey. The opportunity was not long in coming. Turkish affairs have a way of offering good pretexts for intervention.

Nineteenth-century interventions.

The Turkish empire is a thoroughgoing oriental despotism of a very ancient type, not at all affected in substance by modern influences, however much its workings may be veneered to the superficial observer. A line of degenerate successors of Mohammed II. and Solymán the

Magnificent have learned to maintain by deceit the place they cannot hold by strength. Nowhere are the jealousies and differences of the powers better understood than at the Yildiz Kiosk, whose occupant has learned to make promises never intended to be kept, while carrying on his government in the ancient way whenever actual coercion does not prevent. The head of a great religion that breeds millions of fanatics, he dare not depart from its time-honored customs. The head of an empire maintained by the sufferance and disagreements of outside powers, he has practised with oriental astuteness the wiles that prevent united action by those powers. In their division is his salvation. Whether from actual blindness, or unwillingness to see, the western powers have failed to recognize, or at least to acknowledge, the colossal facility in deceit possessed by the sultan's government. Russia, itself semi-oriental and thoroughly acquainted with oriental ways, has seemingly alone known the slight value to be put upon the sultan's promises, and has acted accordingly. In 1856, while demanding reforms of the sultan, the powers renounced all right to interfere in Turkish internal affairs, thereby establishing a policy which has produced infinite trouble. In a very liberal edict (the *hatti-humayoun* of February, 1856) the sultan set forth a comprehensive program of reforms, providing liberty, religious and legal equality for all subjects, Christian or Mussulman. The impossibility of maintaining such a policy, as long as the sultan remained the head of the religious Mohammedan state, seems not to have been apparent to the statesmen of Europe in 1856. To the notification of the *hatti-humayoun*, the powers replied:

The Turkish empire.

Reform promised in 1856.

Renunciation of the powers.

"The contracting powers appreciate the high value of this communication. It is well understood that it could not in any case give the said powers the right to interfere, either collectively or separately, in the relations of the sultan with his subjects, nor in the internal administration of the empire."

Yet the affairs of the Turkish empire were sure to necessitate interference. The Greek struggle for independence had shown that, and other national Christian states remaining under Turkish control were restless and justly desirous of treading the path the Greeks had followed. In-



GROUP OF ALBANIANS IN THE MOUNTAINS ABOVE SCODRA.

deed a peculiar condition is found existing in the territory that prior to 1878 belonged to the Turkish empire. The wave of Turkish invasion had overwhelmed five distinct nationalities which had for centuries before enjoyed power as sovereign states. Of these the most ancient and best known are the Hellenes or Greeks. By the assistance of the powers they had been able to win their independence and form a sovereign state, but this state included only a part of the Greek people,¹ and territorially only

Balkan and Danubian nationalities.



¹The present population of Greece is about two and a half million, nearly all Greeks. It is estimated that there are in Asia Minor two million more of Greek nationality; in Crete, Cyprus and other Turkish islands, four hundred thousand; and in European Turkey, probably at least two million; making the total of Greek nationality over seven million.

Albanians, Servians,
Roumans.

the small area of classic Hellas, the whole area, with the addition of Thessaly in 1881, amounting to but 25,014 square miles. Nearest the Greeks, akin to them racially, but preserving national traditions, dress, language, and customs of their own, are the Albanian mountaineers. Many of the Albanians had become Hellenized among their Greek neighbors, but the main body of them preserved their national life and were conquered and absorbed by the Turks, becoming good Mussulmans, and furnishing some of the best troops in the Turkish armies. They constitute from twenty to twenty-five per cent of the population of European Turkey. In the northwestern part of the peninsula lies a group of

territories — Bosnia, Herzegovina, Serbia, Novi-Bazar, and Montenegro — inhabited by kindred Slavonic peoples. These people are known as Serbs or Servians, and they have a long and interesting history. Across the peninsula from Serbia to the Black sea, in the Balkan district, are the Bulgarians, who also have an interesting, though vaguely known, national history. They take their name from an invading Asiatic people, who were absorbed by the ancient indigenous inhabitants of Thrace, from whom the modern Bulgarians probably derive their main line of descent. North of the Danube is found the last of these five groups, the Roumans, organized since 1862 in the autonomous state of Roumania, which, however, still recognized, prior to 1877, the sovereignty of the sultan. The



**BULGARIAN
PEASANTS.**

[From "Travels and Politics in The Near East."
F. A. Stokes Co.]

Roumans, like the Greeks, are not confined to Roumania. The nationality numbers about nine or ten million, half of whom are in Roumania, and the remainder in Hungary, Transylvania, Serbia, and Bulgaria. The Roumans are of mixed origin, speaking a Latin dialect, which has come down from the days when the country that is now Roumania was organized into a Roman province by the Emperor Trajan.

Nearly all of these peoples are orthodox Greek Christians, and hence the protection of their rights was long ago assumed by Russia as especially pertaining to her position as the head of the Greek church. Each of them occupied a compact territory which was the center of its ancient power and the rallying-point of its national life. Each of them, except the Albanians, who may be regarded as fully incorporated in Turkey, was, and is, largely represented outside its own borders by groups of its nationality forming alien bodies in adjoining states. This has greatly complicated the political situation to which the existence of these nationalities within the realm conquered by the Turks has given rise. The national aspirations of these peoples have come into conflict with the internal politics of states in which their people formed an appreciable part of the population, making it for the interest of the latter states to check the movements of the Turkish subjects toward national realization and at times to give support to the power of the infidel oppressor.

At the time of the Congress of Vienna all of these nationalities were still subject to the sultan. Since that time they have been slowly attain-

Religious and political complications.

ing independent existence, with the help of European diplomacy and armed force. The independence of Greece, which interested all of western Europe on sentimental grounds, was accomplished during the first third of the century. Since then Roumania, Servia, and Montenegro have become independent and sovereign states, and the control of Bosnia and Herzegovina has passed to Austria-Hungary, although these provinces still remain subject to the sultan. The events that brought about these results were long in preparing, but the final seal was set upon them by the Congress of Berlin in 1878.

Here, then, were elements of the complicated political situation that developed between 1871 and 1878, closing one phase of the perennial Eastern question, and turning into new channels the larger problems that it involved. For ten years the attention of Europe was focused upon its southeast corner, in the endeavor to solve the complex and threatening questions to which this ancient historical situation gave rise.

CHAPTER X.

THE EASTERN QUESTION FROM 1871 TO 1878.

For forty years Europe had been at peace when the Crimean war disturbed the elaborately maintained quiet of international relations, and as if this had been the signal for letting loose all the dogs of war, three wars followed in close succession,¹ each of them brief in duration but great from the importance of the nations involved, from the magnitude of the forces engaged, and from the results. The aggressive methods of Bismarck had rudely shaken Europe and war seemed in the air. The new diplomacy discarded entirely the methods which had been in vogue since the days of Napoleon, and a new militarism seemed to be abroad. Alarmists did not see how different this was from the militarism of Napoleon, that it was invoked to solve great questions which would not yield to any treatment but the surgery of war; and every international disagreement was magnified into a possible *casus belli*. A new war was indeed soon to open, but western Europe was to furnish neither arena nor contestants. The disturbed southeast was the place, and the old opponents, Russia and Turkey, were to be the parties.

Europe adjusted itself slowly to new conditions, and the lines that the alliances of the newly-organized states would take were not determined in 1871-2. There was a tendency toward an alliance of the three eastern empires, but this rested on personal grounds—the friendship of the emperors and of Bismarck—rather than on any real needs of state policy. Another tendency was gradually shaping itself toward what later became known as the Triple Alliance—Germany, Austria-Hungary and Italy—thrown across Europe from north to south to maintain the balance between east and west. England and France were less in accord than they had been in the days of the Crimean war, and the former showed an inclination toward a policy of its own and a large interference in eastern affairs. It was the period of Disraeli's leadership.

The condition of the Ottoman empire had long been disquieting. The European renunciation of any right of interference in Turkish internal affairs, while still making requirements of the Turkish government, betrayed a weakness which the Porte was quick to use for its own ends. The Turk, like the Chinese, is said to be a very honest gentleman in private business, but as with the Chinese, lying is a normal part of his political methods. There was undoubtedly in the Turkish empire a progressive party which favored a constitutional government on a Euro-

¹ The war of 1859 between Austria and France and Sardinia, the Seven Weeks' war, and the Franco-Prussian war.

Coquetting with reform.

pean model, but that the Porte entertained for any length of time any serious idea of such a reform there is not the slightest evidence. The promise of the *hatti-humayoun* failed of realization. In 1861 the Sultan Abdul Medjid died, and was succeeded by his brother, Abdul Aziz. Both of these sovereigns followed the same policy of coquetting with ideas of reform sufficiently to keep the European powers quiet, but they did nothing. Indeed, under their lax administration, matters grew constantly worse. To religious and race hatred of their rulers there were added in the Christian provinces intolerable burdens of taxation, which the bad condition of the Turkish finances and the wanton extravagance of the sultan rendered increasingly heavy. In the Slavonic provinces adjoining Austria restlessness was steadily growing; the Danubian principalities were anxious to complete their partly won independence; Bulgaria had its own national ambitions; and Greece was watching for the opportunity to round out its territory by the addition of Thessaly and Epirus. Affairs in the Balkan peninsula were watched closely by Prince Gortschakoff and the advisers of the tsar. Having practically torn up the Treaty of Paris, Russia was ready once more to try its hand at regulating the Ottoman domain.

The insurrection in Bosnia and Herzegovina.

Late in 1874 troubles had occurred on the Montenegrin border which broke out into irregular warfare in the following year, and stirred into rebellion the discontent in Bosnia and Herzegovina produced by bad harvests, pitiless taxation and broken Turkish promises. By July, 1875, the country, with the encouragement of Serbia and Montenegro, was in open insurrection, which became guerilla warfare when the Turkish government had assembled a force too large for the rebels to make head against. The situation was an embarrassing one for the three empires. On behalf of Germany Bismarck constantly asserted its entire indifference to the Eastern question, but the inevitable interest of Germany's two neighbors in the state of Turkey made the German empire liable at any time to be drawn into the international complications that might arise. Unfortunately for Germany's peace of mind, the interests of Russia and Austria were opposed. Russia hardly hoped in any event to be allowed by the powers to possess itself of Constantinople. Its present idea was to reestablish its right to a protectorate of the interests of Greek Christians and the establishment in the Balkan peninsula of one or more Slavonic states, which would be its faithful friends and allies. With this end in view, while it worked with apparent sincerity in concert with the other powers to bring about a settlement of existing difficulties, it doubtless saw in them a possible opportunity. It was in the Slav nations of north-western Turkey, a closely allied group, that the flames had broken out. It would have been hardly possible for Russia to be unresponsive to the calls of kindred, race and religion, of unselfish humanity, and of selfish interest.

Germany.

Russia.

Austria-Hungary.

For Austria-Hungary on the other hand, the question was a much more difficult one. This will be understood if the peculiar constitution of the Austrian empire is borne in mind. Its large population of Slavs, principally located on the border adjoining the disturbed Turkish provinces, was already restless, and their national aspirations were with difficulty kept in check by the Magyar and German elements. What but the dismemberment of the Hungarian part of the empire would be the probable result of the erection of a strong independent Slavonic state on the border? Thus the dominant Magyar influence strongly sympathized with Turkey. Furthermore the Magyars, who hated all Slavs, hated Russia most. This attitude of Austria-Hungary was so well understood by Russia that, as the probability of war with Turkey became greater, Prince Gortschakoff sought to obtain from Bismarck assurance of German neutrality in case Austria should arm against Russia. Bismarck would not commit himself, except to intimate that Germany would not feel called upon to interfere unless something were done to disturb the balance of power in Europe. This was not enough for Russia, and an attempt was next made to come

Russia's attempt to secure German and Austrian neutrality.



CONSTANTINOPLE
AND THE
BOSPORUS.

to an understanding with Austria. A meeting was arranged between Alexander and Francis Joseph at Reichstadt on the 8th of July, 1876. This meeting resulted in a secret treaty, concluded January 15, 1877, of which Bismarck declares:

"This treaty, and not the Berlin Congress, is the foundation of the Austrian possession of Bosnia and Herzegovina, and during the war with the Turks secured to Russia the neutrality of Austria."¹

We do not know exactly what passed at the Reichstadt conference, but the statement of the great Prussian throws an interesting sidelight upon that conference and the greater negotiations at Berlin in 1878. There is no doubt that Russia was greatly disappointed at Germany's non-committal attitude, and the result was felt in the relations of these two powers for many years, probably having much to do with the *rapprochement* of Russia and France a few years later.²

While Russia was making these diplomatic preparations for a forward policy, events in the principalities hurried to their culmination. In the summer of 1875, the consuls of the six great powers journeyed through the rebellious provinces and reported on the necessity of reforms if the insurgents were to be induced to lay down their arms. In response to the representations of the powers, decrees of the sultan gave renewed promises of extensive reforms, which were never meant to be carried out. No promise of this kind by the Porte has ever been worth anything unless guaranteed by the powers, and the policy of 1856 had disarmed the latter

Progress of the
insurrection.

¹ Bismarck's Autobiography, II., 235.

² The following passage from Bismarck's Autobiography (II., 238), illustrates the Russian feeling in regard to Germany at this crisis, and is also interesting for the observation, by one of the clearest-headed statesmen of his age, on the principles that must govern international relations: "'*Votre amitié est trop platonique,*' said reproachfully the Empress Marie to one of our representatives. It is true that the friendship of the cabinet of one great power for another always remains platonic to a certain point; for no great power can place itself exclusively at the service of another. It will always have to keep in view not only existing but future relations to the others, and must as far as possible avoid lasting fundamental hostility with any of them. This is particularly important for Germany with its central position, which is open to attack on three sides."

so far as any effective intervention was concerned. Furthermore, England's policy was one of open encouragement of the Porte, which relied upon the friendship of the Disraeli government. A joint note, drawn by Andrassy, the Austro-Hungarian premier, was presented to the Porte, asking for unlimited religious freedom in the provinces, abolition

The Andrassy note.

AFTER AN ASSAULT
ON THE REDOUBT
AT PLEVNA.

[From London Illustrated
News, Oct. 27, 1877.]



The Bulgarian
atrocities.

of the tax-farming system, the use of the direct revenues of Bosnia and Herzegovina for the benefit of those provinces, the establishment of a special commission, half Moham-medan and half Christian, to superintend the execution of the reforms, and action looking to improvement of the condition of the industrial population. These demands went the way of all others, the Porte offering no resistance except that most hopeless resistance of suave inertia. Russia had dutifully coöperated with the powers all this time, but was fast becoming impatient with a policy

the utter uselessness of which had been shown again and again. It is hardly necessary to follow in detail negotiations and events which were a constant repetition so far as essential features were concerned. The murder of the French and German consuls at Salonica by a Turkish mob almost aroused the powers to action. The demand of Germany for indemnity crowded the Turkish treasury, and the reform party of Young Turkey, which was strongly anti-Russian, became active. Abdul Aziz was dethroned, and Murad V., the eldest son of Abdul Medjid, was made sultan. Abdul Aziz was imprisoned and committed suicide. In the meantime events had occurred in the Balkans which aroused a strong sentiment against Turkey throughout the civilized world. A slight revolt broke out in Bulgaria, due to oppression, and especially to the settlement among the Bulgarians of Circassians, who made the native population a prey, and were countenanced by the Porte, which had determined upon extermination of the Bulgarian people. To put down the insurrection Abdul Kerim, the Turkish commander, enrolled a force of irregular volunteers, the Bashi-Bazouks, to assist the Turkish regulars. A succession of horrible massacres ensued, accompanied by barbarities inconceivable in this nineteenth century. An account of the condition of affairs at Batak, which had been the center of the repressive measures

will indicate the means taken by the Ottoman government to establish its authority :

"On every side were skulls and skeletons charred among the ruins, or lying entire where they fell in their clothing. There were skeletons of girls and women with long brown hair hanging to their skulls. We approached the church. There these remains were more frequent, until the ground was literally covered by skeletons, skulls, and putrefying bodies in clothing. Between the church and school there were heaps. The stench was fearful. We entered the churchyard. The sight was more dreadful. The whole churchyard for three feet deep was festering with dead bodies, partly covered; hands, legs, arms, and heads projecting in ghastly confusion. I saw many little hands, heads, and feet of children three years of age, and girls with heads covered with beautiful hair. The church was still worse. The floor was covered with rotting bodies quite uncovered. The town had nine thousand inhabitants. There now remain twelve hundred. Many who had escaped had returned recently, weeping and moaning over their ruined homes. Their sorrowful wailing could be heard half a mile off. Some were digging out the skeletons of loved ones. A woman was sitting moaning over three small skulls, with hair clinging to them, which she had in her lap. The man who did this, Achmed Aga, has been promoted, and is still governor of the district."⁴

The story of Batak.

This and many other similar reports, before which civilization stood aghast, were corroborated by unquestionable authority. They were reluctantly admitted by the representatives of the British government, although they were held back until the *Daily News* began its investigations, and Mr. Gladstone's vigorous attack forced the government into a defensive position. Indeed England has few blunders to answer for greater than that of its blind policy of support to Turkey, which made possible such crimes against humanity. These horrors became known as the "Bulgarian atrocities." It is estimated that not less than eleven thousand people, men, women, and children indiscriminately, and most of them guilty of no offense, not even that of just rebellion, perished.

Servia and Montenegro, which had contented themselves with secret encouragement of the insurrections in Bosnia and Herzegovina, now came out in open war against the common oppressor, but the European powers still held back. Bulgaria was prostrate, the Roumanians and the Greeks had no desire to assist in the building up

of a strong Slavonic state in the peninsula, and the Serbs were left to fight their battle against odds alone. Naturally the fighting went against them. This was in 1876, the period when Russia was making its diplomatic inquiries preparatory to a more active intervention than it had yet allowed itself. The Reichstadt agreement committed Austria-Hungary to a policy of neutrality. England, the Magyars in their private capacity,⁵ and the pope were the only supporters of Turkey, and Gladstone's attack, which



A TURKISH OUTPOST.

Servia and Montenegro begin war.

⁴ Correspondence of the London *Daily News*, by J. A. McGahan.

⁵ A notable illustration of Magyar sentiment was shown in the presentation by a body of Hungarian students of a sword to Abdul Kerim, the conqueror of Servia, as "a pledge of the intimate friendship between the two countries." In the exchange of courtesies the Turkish general was congratulated upon his achievements in Servia (it is not on record that mention was made of his work in Bulgaria), and the common ancestry of the Turkish and Magyar people was mentioned with strong feeling. Abdul Kerim expressed regret that the Christianization of Hungary had severed two peoples who were naturally allies.

aroused the humanity of the English people, had made the attitude of the English government far less positive than it had previously been. Murad V. had been declared of unsound mind after a reign of three months, and the present sultan, Abdul Hamid II., succeeded him, issuing in November, 1876, the last of the mythical reform decrees with which the wily Ottoman government has ventured to affront the sense of Europe.

Russia begins war.

It was now evident that Russia was on the point of declaring war upon Turkey. Frantic efforts were made by the powers to avert the catastrophe, but the war spirit was aroused in Constantinople as well as in St. Petersburg. The tsar declared his purposes to the English ambassador, saying that he did not seek the possession of Constantinople or anything more than a temporary occupation of Bulgaria. He believed that force would alone accomplish anything with Turkey, and in this the tsar was undoubtedly right. On the 1st of March, 1877, Servia and Turkey made peace on the basis of the *status quo ante*, but the Montenegrins, whose country is a natural fortress, had been more successful and remained in arms. Montenegro has always had an excellent understanding with Russia and probably felt assured of support. In the early months of 1877 Russia exerted herself to secure some effective united action, but that failing, in April concluded a treaty with Roumania which secured the assistance of that country and enabled the Russian armies to cross it on their march to the Danube. On the 24th of April Russia declared war, and immediately pushed forward several army corps, crossed the Danube as soon as the spring high waters would permit, meeting slight and ineffective resistance, and occupied Bulgaria. The army of Roumania, under Prince Charles in person, was mobilized but did not move outside of Roumania for some weeks because Russia did not wish to excite the jealousy of Austria, which disliked military demonstrations on the part of those nationalities of which she possessed a large contingent.

The campaign of 1877-78.

The war that followed was short and sharp, like all the great wars of the last thirty years. Hostilities continued until the 31st of January, 1878. The first weeks of the war were characterized by a rapid and successful Russian advance, which aimed at the control of the Danube and the Balkan passes. The Turkish resistance showed, as did the fighting throughout the war, that the Turkish soldiers were brave, capable, and well equipped, but there was no grand strategy worth the name developed by their commanders. Some of the pashas displayed marked ability in limited operations but there was no unity of action, nothing to meet the systematic Russian onslaught. The great error of the Russian generals was in underestimating the Turkish strength, but this mistake was corrected as the campaign progressed. Russia received its first check when Osman Pasha, by a piece of brilliant strategy, occupied and fortified Plevna, holding the Russian forces in check from July until the 10th of December, inflicting heavy losses upon them in several assaults, and compelling a siege by a large army. The Roumanian army was first brought into action at Plevna, and did excellent service. The capture of Plevna left the way southward clear. The Shipka pass was held by the Russians, on the 4th of January, and Sofia, the ancient Bulgarian capital was occupied, after the lapse of centuries, by a Christian army. Adrianople was entered on the 20th, and the Russian forces advanced almost within sight of Constantinople.

Nearing peace.

In Armenia an equally successful campaign had been fought by General Melikoff, and Ardahan, Kars, and Erzerum were in the hands of the Russians when hostilities ceased. The Servians had again taken the field, encouraged by the Russian victories; the Montenegrins were fighting with marked success; Crete was in rebellion; and Greece was looking for an opportunity to secure Thessaly, Epirus and Macedonia. Turkey had every reason to desire peace, while Russia, in view of the threatening attitude of England, also wished to conclude negotiations. The plenipotentiaries

of the two belligerents therefore arranged the peace of San Stefano, which was signed on the 3rd of March, 1878. This treaty, which was destined not to go into effect in its most important provisions, is interesting as an expression of Russia's idea as to the fruits of her unquestioned victory.

The treaty of San Stefano consisted of twenty-nine articles. The first five recognized the independence of Servia, Montenegro, and Roumania. The boundaries of Servia and Montenegro were to be enlarged. The next six articles were the most important section of the treaty, and aroused the most opposition from others than the contracting parties. They

The treaty of
San Stefano.



KING CHARLES I.,
OF ROUMANIA.

related to Bulgaria, which was to be created "an autonomous tributary principality, with a Christian government and a national militia." The boundaries were to be defined by a special Russo-Turkish commission, which was to "take into account the principle of the nationality of the majority of the inhabitants of the border districts, conformably to the bases of peace, and also the topographical necessities and practical interests of the intercommunication of the local population." The treaty itself described the general boundaries, giving to Bulgaria a territory greater than had belonged to the ancient kingdom, and reaching the Aegean sea. The recognition of the suzerainty of the Porte was an empty reservation, under the circumstances, as Russia intended it to be. The

twelfth article neutralized the lower Danube. Articles fourteen to sixteen provided for reforms in Bosnia, Herzegovina, Crete, Epirus, Armenia, and other parts of the Turkish empire. The twenty-second article gave Russia a right of official protection of Russian ecclesiastics, pilgrims, and monks in European or Asiatic Turkey, together with their possessions. Article twenty-four guaranteed free navigation of the Bosphorus and Dardanelles to neutral merchant vessels in time of war as in time of peace, and engaged the Porte not to establish any fictitious blockade of the Black sea and Azof ports. All of these articles were revised or superseded by the Congress of Berlin. Of the twenty-nine articles those that were unaffected by the congress, eleven in number, were the thirteenth, relating to the removal of obstructions at the Soulina mouth of the Danube by the Porte, and indemnification of private individuals for losses occasioned thereby; the amnesty provisions, articles seventeen and twenty-seven; the indemnity clauses, nineteen; the twentieth article, relating to lawsuits in Turkey; the twenty-first, permitting inhabitants of ceded districts to take up residence elsewhere; the twenty-third, relating to the renewal of commercial and consular treaties; and the last four articles, covering the evacuation by Russia of the Asiatic provinces, the subject of prisoners, and that of ratifications. The cessions to Russia, in lieu of money indemnity which the Porte could not pay, included several districts which the tsar, not wishing to annex, had the option of exchanging for that part of Bessarabia taken from Russia in 1856; and in Armenia, "Ardahan, Kars, Batoum, Bayazid, and the

Eleven articles
unaffected.

territory as far as the Saganlough." Of this Asiatic cession, Bayazid and the Alaschkerd valley were returned to Turkey by the Berlin congress.

CHAPTER XI.

THE CONGRESS OF BERLIN.

Effect of the Russian
victories in Europe.

The rapid and triumphant southward march of the Russians caused consternation in certain European capitals. England especially was stirred to threats of active interference. The treaty of San Stefano, while it put an end to hostilities between the belligerent powers, by no means satisfied the requirements of the European concert, if such a thing really existed. The English government had already notified the Russian government that any treaty made with the Porte would be regarded as a matter of interest to the powers and subject to revision by them. When the San Stefano terms were announced, England and Austria-Hungary united in declaring them unsatisfactory and in demanding a congress. The objection of the Austro-Hungarian government to the strengthening of the Slavs of the Balkan peninsula was quieted by a special mission from Russia; but England persisted in demanding a complete review of the treaty of San Stefano upon the basis of the treaty of Paris. For a while war seemed inevitable, but every European interest, including those of Russia and England, was against such a catastrophe and every resource of diplomacy was brought into play to prevent it. Negotiations conducted by Count Schouvalof, one of Russia's ablest diplomats, finally brought about the arrangement of a secret treaty between England and Russia, signed at London, May 30, 1878. This agreement provided for the settlement of some of the disputed points, notably in regard to Bulgaria, upon the basis afterward determined by the Congress of Berlin.

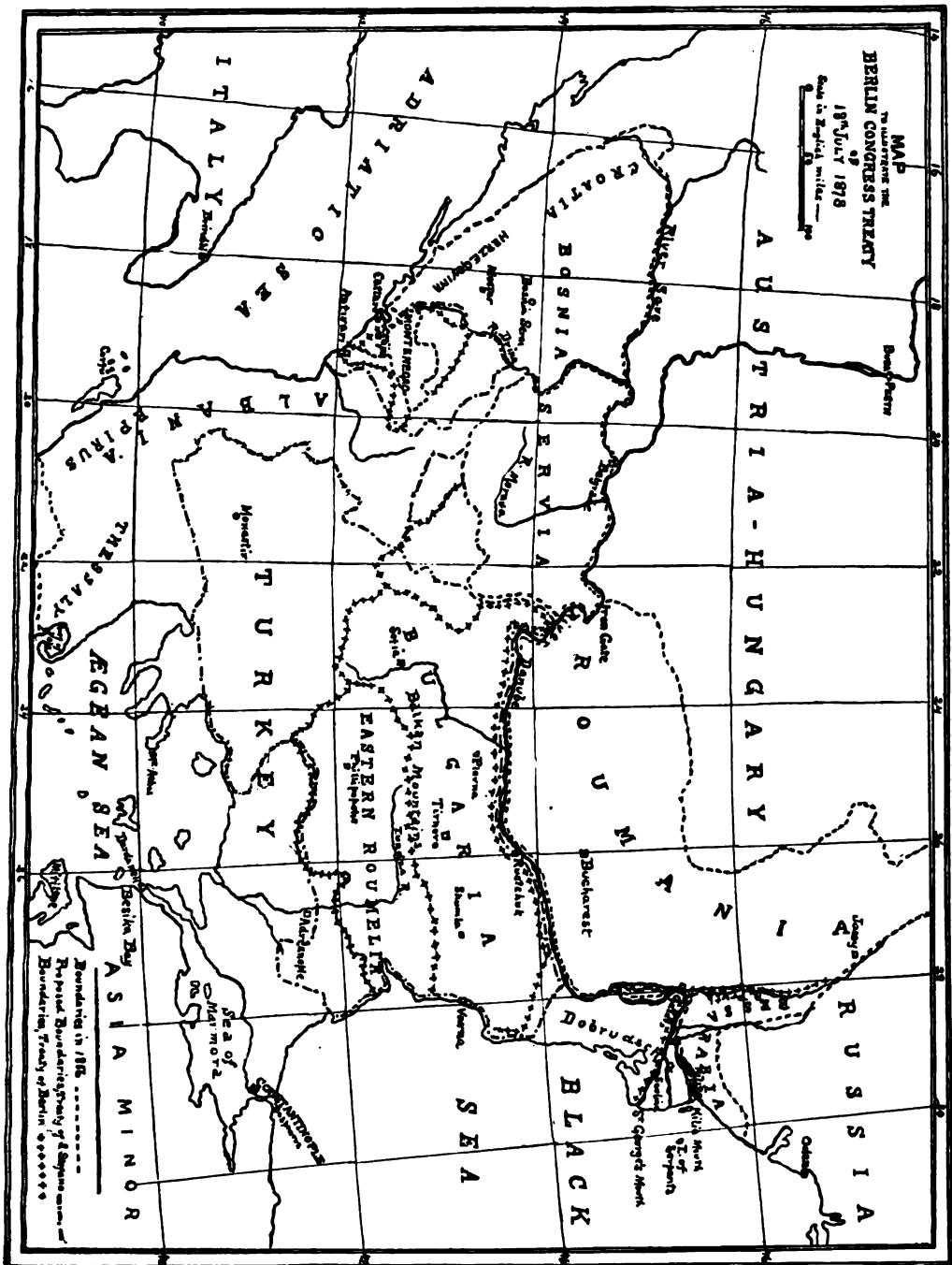
Congress of Berlin,
June, 1878.

The congress met in Berlin on the 13th of June, holding its sessions in a wing of the Radziwill palace, the residence of Bismarck. The German chancellor presided over the deliberations. The congress was made up of the leading statesmen from the six great powers of Europe, and Turkey. Delegates from Greece, Roumania, Servia, and Montenegro attended the sessions that dealt with affairs relating to their states, but had no membership in the congress. Its deliberations resulted in a complete resettlement of the Eastern question, as it then presented itself, but this settlement rested upon the treaties of Paris of 1856 and of London in 1871, so that the present policies of Europe upon this question are represented by the Treaty of Berlin, plus those articles of the two earlier treaties which it did not supersede or repeal. Nothing since has modified this adjustment of general European policy. The congress was therefore an evidence that the powers were prepared to insist determinedly that the status of the Turkish empire was a matter of European concern and not to be regulated by one state acting independently.

Resettlement of the
Eastern question.

Relation of the new
to preceding treat-
ties.

Of the provisions of the Treaty of Paris that of Berlin retained in whole or in part the articles admitting the Ottoman empire to participation in the advantages of the public law of Europe, pledging the contracting parties to resort to mediation before using force in case of any future misunderstanding with the Porte, and making the navigation of the Bosphorus, the Black sea, and the Danube free to merchant vessels. Of the nine articles of the Treaty of London (1871) those supplementing or revising the provisions of 1856 relating to navigation of the Straits, the Black sea, and the Danube, remained practically operative under the Treaty of Berlin. It will be seen that these survivals of the earlier treaties deal almost wholly with questions of merely commercial



New lines on
political questions.

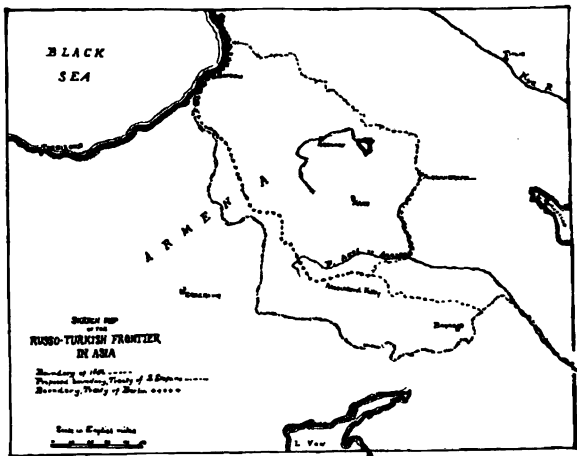
importance. On the great political questions the Berlin congress struck out new lines—necessarily, since it started from a new basis. The fundamental principles of the earlier arrangements had been the integrity of the Ottoman empire. Greece had been allowed an independent existence early in the century, but with narrow territorial limits; and Moldavia and Wallachia had received partial independence in 1856; but otherwise the powers had refused to sanction any inroad upon Turkish sovereignty. Now a considerable part of the Turkish territory in Europe was parceled out among three independent states and one autonomous tributary principality. A marked, though still very imperfect, recognition was given to the principle of nationality, and the years immediately succeeding 1878 were to show how much real vitality the principle possesses, even under adverse circumstances.

Permanent
provisions.

The temporary provisions of the treaty, those concerned with the immediate settlement of complications growing out of the war, are of no interest now; indeed, they were comparatively few in number, being chiefly left for the belligerents to settle according to the stipulations of San Stefano; but the catalogue of articles of permanent effect is a long and important one.¹ The principal question in the view of the powers was that of Bulgaria, which was first considered and occupies the first twelve articles of the treaty.² It was created an autonomous tributary

Bulgaria.

principality, under the suzerainty of the sultan, with a Christian government and a national militia. An elective Assembly of Notables was to draw up the organic law, and the prince was to be thereafter elected by the people, subject to the confirmation of the Porte with the assent of the powers. Freedom of religion was to be guaranteed. Several articles provided for the details



of carrying out these main provisions. But this Bulgaria was not the great Bulgaria of San Stefano, more than half of which was restored to Turkey, the eastern part of this restoration being erected into the province of Eastern Roumelia, to the delimitation and organization of which ten more articles were devoted. This province was to "remain under the direct political and military authority of His Imperial Majesty the Sultan, under conditions of administrative autonomy," with a Christian governor-

Eastern Roumelia.

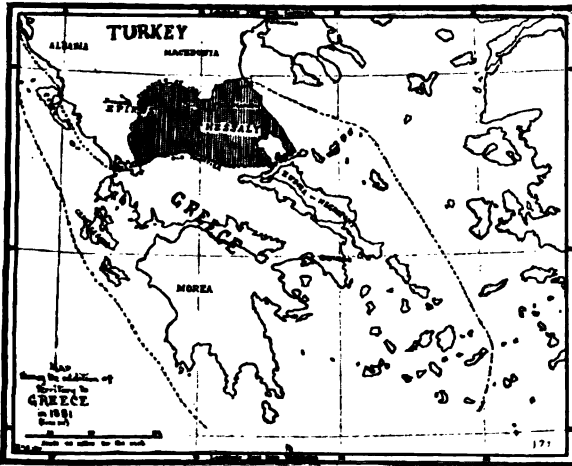
¹ The articles of the treaty of Berlin are classified as follows: I.-XII., Bulgaria; XIII.-XXII., Eastern Roumelia; XXIII., Crete and other European provinces; XXIV., Greece; XXV., Bosnia and Herzegovina; XXVI.-XXXI., XXXIII., Montenegro; XXXIV.-XL., XLII., Serbia; XLIII.-LL., Roumania; LII.-LVII., the Danube; LVIII.-LX., cessions in Asia; LXI. LXII., obligations undertaken by the Porte; XXII., XXXII., XLI., evacuations; LXIII.-LXIV., confirmation of former treaties and ratification.

² In a circular addressed to the English embassies setting forth the views of their government on the proposed congress is a paragraph on the New Bulgaria and Russian influence over it, which states very clearly the English, and in great measure the Austrian position on this question. Lord Salisbury said: "The most important consequences to which the treaty [of San Stefano] practically leads are those which result from its action as a whole upon the nations of southeastern Europe. By the articles erecting the New Bulgaria, a strong Slav state will be created under the auspices and control of Russia, possessing important harbors

general.³ Police duty was to be in the hands of native *gendarmérie*; and irregular troops, Bashi-Bazouks, and Circassians, were not to be employed as garrisons on the border. Ottoman troops could be summoned into the province only upon sufficient emergency, after notice to the powers. The administrative, judicial, and financial systems of the province were to be organized by a European commission, acting in concert with the Porte.

The Porte engaged itself "scrupulously to apply in the Island of Crete the Organic Law of 1868 with such modifications as may be considered equitable,"⁴ a promise which had it been honestly kept might have prevented the late Cretan insurrection and the abortive Greek war. Similar laws adapted to local requirements were to be applied in other European Turkish provinces. The Greek boundary was to be rectified,⁵ disagreement to be subject to mediation by the powers. This after much negotiation was finally accomplished by the award of May 24, 1881, the frontier convention of July 2 between Greece and Turkey, and the final act of the

Reforms promised
by the Porte.



delimitation commission, signed at Constantinople, November 27. By this settlement Greece received Thessaly and a part of Epirus. The Berlin treaty also provided that Bosnia and Herzegovina should be occupied and administered by Austria-Hungary, although remaining subject to the sovereignty of the sultan. This peculiar arrangement was

RECTIFIED GREEK
BOUNDARY.

intended to prevent the consolidation of a strong Slav kingdom on the Hungarian border.

The succeeding twenty-six articles are devoted to the recognition of Montenegro, Servia, and Roumania as independent states, upon condition that full religious liberty, without discrimination in any civil and political rights and privileges, on account of creed, should be granted to all subjects. This provision caused some difficulty in Roumania where there was, and is, a strong anti-Semitic feeling. Many details were necessary for the adjustment of the relations of these states with those around them. Montenegro received the port of Antivari and its seaboard district, but subject to the restriction that it should neither have ships

Austrian occupa-
tion of Bosnia and
Herzegovina.

Independence of
Montenegro, Servia,
and Roumania.



upon the shores of the Black sea and the Archipelago, and conferring upon that power a preponderating influence over both political and commercial relations in those seas. It will be so constituted as to merge in the dominant Slav majority a considerable mass of population which is Greek in race and sympathy, and which views with alarm the prospect of absorption into a community alien to it not only in nationality but in political tendency and in religious allegiance. The provisions by which this new state is to be subjected to a ruler whom Russia will practically choose, its administration framed by a Russian commissary, and the first working of its institutions commenced under the control of a Russian army, sufficiently indicate the political system of which it is in future to form a part." Russia's answer to this criticism, contained in a memorandum by Prince Gortschakoff, is a general denial of the charge of undue extension of Russian influence, and the claim that Russia merely sought in the case of Bulgaria to make more clear and definite what Europe had already decided upon.

³ Treaty of Berlin, Art. XIII.

⁵ *Ibid.*, Art. XXIV.

⁴ *Ibid.*, Art. XXIII.

⁶ *Ibid.*, Art. XXV.

nor flag of war (presumably naval flag), and that its waters should be closed to the ships of war of all nations.⁷ Roumania reluctantly gave up to Russia that part of Bessarabia which had been taken from Russia in 1856, receiving as compensation the islands of the Danube delta, the Isle of Serpents, and a portion of the Dobrudscha.

Neutralization of
the Danube.

Five articles⁸ secured the neutralization of the Danube, upon the banks of which there were to be no fortifications and on its waters no ships of war below the Iron Gate. The European Commission of the Danube, upon which Roumania was henceforth to be represented, was to be continued and to exercise its functions in complete independence of all territorial authorities. This commission had been authorized by the Treaty of Paris in 1856 to have charge of works for maintaining the navigability of the river. It was composed of delegates from each of the signatory powers, and had its own flag.

Russia's gain in
Asia Minor.

Russia's only direct gains of territory by the war, as Gortschakoff had not failed to remind the powers, were in the cessions of Armenian territory in Asia Minor, upon which Russia was disposed to insist.

England was the chief objector, but after long negotiations practically yielded to Russia's demands and sought an offset. In a note, dated the 30th of May, 1878, to Mr. Layard, the British ambassador at Constantinople, Lord Salisbury explained that while Russia and the other powers were likely to find a basis of harmonious action as regarded European Turkey, there was "no such prospect with respect to that portion of the treaty (of San Stefano) which concerns Turkey in Asia." He then declared that the cession of so much territory would spread among the peoples subject to the Ottoman power, which he acknowledged rested upon force, a belief in the decline of that power which would assist the dissolution of the empire, the integrity of which was regarded by the British government as essential to general peace.

NICOLAS I.,
PRINCE OF
MONTENEGRO.



England's
guarantee.

Her Majesty's government therefore felt it necessary that a power strong enough to enforce its will should stand behind Turkey and guarantee the empire against further dismemberment. This England was prepared to do on two conditions. There must be an assurance of reforms by the Porte in the government of its Christian and other subjects in the regions to be guaranteed. The English government was "not prepared to sanction misgovernment and oppression." In spite of this brave declaration made in 1878, the Armenian massacres took place unpunished in 1894, in the very region for the security and good government of which England had become responsible. Furthermore, to enable England to execute the proposed arrangement, a military occupation of Cyprus was proposed, the island to be administered by England but not to be alienated from Turkey, which was to receive

⁷ Treaty of Berlin, Art. XXIX.

⁸ Numbers lii.-lvii.

any surplus revenue. In accordance with this proposal a treaty of defensive alliance between Great Britain and Turkey was signed at Constantinople on the 4th of June, 1878, to take effect in case Russia retained Batoum, Ardahan, or Kars, and made any attempts to take further territories in Asia. As Russia was confirmed in the possession of the territories named, being only refused Bayazid and the Alaschkerd valley, this treaty between Great Britain and Turkey became operative. Under it England occupies Cyprus and stands guard against Russia's further advance into Asia Minor. The moral results that were to flow from this benevolent protectorate are not yet in evidence, but it is not forgotten in Russia that since 1878 Great Britain has occupied this position of open menace. Russia likewise feels that the two powers, Austria-Hungary and Great Britain, which did most to hamper Russia's action and deprive her of the fruits of victory, have been willing to step in and profit by that victory by the occupation in the one case of Bosnia and Herzegovina, and in the other of Cyprus. The acquisition of Batoum by Russia was made less valuable by the decree of the congress that its fortifications should be razed and it should be made a free port.

Russian irritation
against England.



PRINCE FERDINAND,
RULER OF
BULGARIA.

These were the chief results of the Berlin deliberations. Upon the basis thus established the affairs of southeastern Europe have been conducted for twenty-two years. There have been changes of boundary in Montenegro and Greece, accomplished between 1878 and 1881, but these did not affect the general principles laid down at Berlin. In one respect, however, the Berlin arrangement broke down, through the development of the national spirit of the Bulgarians. That spirit, universal in Bulgaria and Eastern Roumelia, demanded the union of the Bulgarian provinces which had been refused by the congress. After seven years of agitation the people decided to take things into their own hands. A bloodless revolution was effected on the 18th of September, 1885, by which Eastern Roumelia united itself to Bulgaria. On the 19th of September Prince Alexander assumed the title of Prince of North and South Bulgaria. The Porte protested and asked for an execution of the Berlin provisions by the powers, but the latter, in a collective note, merely condemned this violation of the treaty and expressed confidence that "the sultan will do all that he can, consistently with his sovereign rights, before resorting to the force which he has at his disposal." This chilly response did not encourage the harassed sultan to engage in a war for which Turkey had neither the will nor the means. Russia, the original advocate of a greater Bulgaria, alone displayed intense opposition to the realization of its own earlier proposition. Indeed the rapid growth and the independent and self-reliant spirit of Bulgaria had disappointed Russia. The tsar had expected that gratitude for Russia's great service in securing autonomy for the Bulgarians would make them the willing instruments of Russian policy. Instead they had shown a spirit of prog-

Union of the
Bulgarian provinces
in 1885.

Changed sentiment
of Russia toward
Bulgaria.

War between
Bulgaria and Servia.

ress and had developed a national policy with little regard to Russia or the other powers. Thus the Russian government was touched in sentiment and self-interest alike. Justly or unjustly it regarded the course of the Bulgarians as ungrateful and it saw slipping from it that influence in the Balkan peninsula for which it had fought a hard and costly war. It therefore opposed the increase of Bulgarian power with intense hostility, but it could not take any open action without the coöperation of the powers.

Curiously enough, Bulgaria's neighbor, Servia, was the only one to

raise a hand against the union. Hoping to make some territorial gains, Servia opened war on Bulgaria, in the name of the Treaty of Berlin, but the admirable leadership and conduct of the Bulgarians and Roumelians won for the new united principality a decided victory, and peace was concluded on the 3rd of March, 1886, at Bucharest, by representatives of Bulgaria, Servia, and the Porte. Prince Alexander's efforts to come to a friendly understanding with the tsar proving unavailing, he accomplished on behalf of Bulgaria an agreement with the Porte by which he was to be nominated for governor-general of Eastern Roumelia, the statutes of which were to be modified to correspond with those of Bulgaria, and the Porte was to place soldiers at his disposal in case



ALEXANDER I.,
KING OF SERVIA.

Plan for a Balkan
confederation.

he was attacked. Prince Alexander's desire, when the good understanding with Russia was finally broken down, was to form a confederation of the Balkan states, including Turkey, which should be strong enough to act independently of the European concert, but this plan, long agitated and with much favor among the Christian states, seems hardly likely to be realized because of national jealousies among the Balkan states. A concert of these little states is as difficult to preserve as is that of the great powers of Europe.

Perhaps the most important consequence of the Treaty of Berlin has been its effect upon Russian policy. Ever since the time of Peter the Great, Russia has been following a consistent policy of expansion north, west, south and east, looking always toward the sea. Its western and northern limits were reached early and easily, but for more than a century, and a half the imperial city on the Bosphorus has dazzled the eyes of the tsars, who have liked to regard themselves as the successors of Constantine. Paris, London, and Berlin put an end to their hopes in this direction. The united powers of Europe raised an impregnable barrier to Russian possession of Constantinople. The treaty of Berlin, and the independent spirit of the Balkan and Danubian states themselves transformed into an idle dream the second point of Russian policy, which had been a part of every treaty between Russia and Turkey until 1856 — the assertion of a Russian protectorate over the Christian provinces of Turkey. Alexander III. refused to accept the situation and showed an intense hostility toward the states that had been freed by Russian arms, endeavoring to accomplish by political intrigue what war and diplomacy had failed to bring about. Nicolas II. has adopted a different course.

Effect on Russian
policy.

Russian intrigues in the Balkan capitals no longer form the stock political gossip of the foreign news columns. Russia maintains an attitude of indifference, except as one of the concert, to affairs at the south, and seeks new fields of activity. The tsar has apparently accepted Bismarck's reported dictum, which once aroused so much indignation in St. Petersburg: "Russia has nothing to do in the west. Her mission is in Asia. There she represents civilization."

Russian expansion
turned eastward.

REVIEW QUESTIONS.

1. In what respect have the problems of the great powers changed since 1871? 2. How was the Eastern question reopened? 3. Why does the "sick man" still rule at Constantinople? 4. What attempts were made by Russia previously to extend her territory toward Constantinople? 5. How were her attempts in the early part of this century thwarted? 6. What unfortunate resolution did the powers adopt in 1856 with reference to Turkey? 7. Describe the small Balkan and Danubian nationalities. 8. Why does Russia claim jurisdiction over these states? 9. Why have these states sometimes taken sides with Turkey? 10. Which of them have become independent?

CHAPTER IX.

1. Describe the state of affairs in Turkey and in the Balkan peninsula in 1871. 2. How did the insurrection in Bosnia and Herzegovina embarrass Germany? 3. How did it affect Austria? 4. What was the result of the secret treaty between Austria and Russia in 1877? 5. What was the Andrassy note and what effect had it? 6. What caused the Bulgarian atrocities? 7. What effect had these upon the small neighboring nationalities? 8. What allies had Turkey at this time? 9. When and how did Russia begin war? 10. How did the two contestants compare? 11. Describe the progress of Russia's campaigns. 12. What effect had her successes upon other states? 13. What were the chief points of the treaty of San Stefano?

CHAPTER X.

1. What action did England take regarding the treaty of San Stefano? 2. Upon what basis does the present agreement about the Eastern question rest? 3. What provisions of the Treaty of Paris were retained in the Berlin Treaty? 4. What of the Treaty of London? 5. What difference is noticeable between these articles and those of the Berlin Treaty? 6. What position was given to Bulgaria? 7. What to Eastern Roumelia? 8. What was required of the Porte respecting Crete and Greece? 9. What peculiar arrangement was made for Bosnia and Herzegovina? 10. What states were made independent and under what conditions? 11. What did Russia gain from the war? 12. Describe England's position. 13. How was the union of Bulgaria and Eastern Roumelia regarded by the various powers? 14. Why does Russia feel irritation against England? 15. What was the result of Serbia's protest? 16. Why is a Balkan confederation improbable? 17. What change has taken place in Russia's policy regarding Constantinople?

CHAPTER XI.

1. What caused the separation between the Greek and Roman Churches? 2. What are the distinctive beliefs of the Greek Church? 3. How did the imperial family of Palaeologus secure its title? 4. What is the origin of the term "The Sublime Porte"? 5. What is the capital of each Balkan state? 6. Who is Carmen Sylva? 7. What are some of her best known literary productions? 8. Why are the colors of the Greek flag blue and white? 9. Who was Disraeli? 10. What and where is the Iron Gate of the Danube?

Search Questions.

VIII.

All the works included under I. and VI.; under IV., Bismarck's Autobiography, and the following:

- Ollier, Edmund. "Caesell's Illustrated History of the Russo-Turkish War." 2 vols. A popular and highly entertaining account, somewhat journalistic, and not critical. Those who wish to make a serious study of the Eastern question and are not seeking entertainment will find a mine of valuable material in:
- Hertslet, Edward. "The Map of Europe by Treaty." Vols. III. and IV.
- Holland, Thomas Erskine. "The European Concert in the Eastern Question." A collection of treaties and other public acts. (Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1885.) Also, "Studies in International Law." (Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1885.)
- English and American reviews and magazines for the past twenty-five years abound in articles dealing with different phases of the Eastern question from every possible point of view. Other books of value are:
- Laveleye, E. "The Balkan Peninsula."
- Samuelson, J. "Roumania, Past and Present."
- Ranke, L. von. "History of Serbia."
- Minchin, J. G. C. "The Growth of Freedom in the Balkan Peninsula, and National Life and Thought."

Bibliography.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS.

THE EASTERN QUESTION REOPENED.

CHAPTER IX.

- The mile-stone of 1871.
 - The work of Bismarck.
 - The era of world politics.
 - Abrogation of the Treaty of Paris.
- The Eastern question.
 - Its antiquity and various forms.
 - The Ottoman rise and decline.
 - Russia and Turkey.
- The Turkish Empire.
 - Danubian and Balkan provinces.
 - Religious and political complications.

THE EASTERN QUESTION FROM 1871 TO 1878.

CHAPTER X.

- A new era of wars.
 - New alliances.
- The Ottoman Empire.
 - Balkan affairs.
 - The Bosnian insurrection.
 - Its effect.
 - Progress of the insurrection.
 - The Bulgarian atrocities.
 - Servia and Montenegro begin war.
- The Russo-Turkish war, 1877-78.
 - Treaty of San Stefano.

THE CONGRESS OF BERLIN.

CHAPTER XI.

- Effect of Russian victories in Europe.
- Congress of Berlin, June, 1878.
 - Resettlement of the Eastern question.
 - Bulgaria and Eastern Roumelia.
 - Montenegro, Servia, and Roumania.
 - Ottoman reforms.
 - Austrian occupation of Bosnia and Herzegovina.
 - The Danube.
 - Russia's gains in Asia Minor.
 - Russian bitterness against England.
- Union of the Bulgarian provinces in 1885.
 - Russia and Bulgaria.
 - A Balkan confederation.
- The change in Russian policy.

A WORLD-FAMOUS
INDUSTRY :
ARMENIANS
WEAVING.





[The voyage from New York to Gibraltar, scenes in Tangier and Algiers, and the arrival at Alexandria, were described in the October issue. In November, Alexandria, the trip to Upper Egypt and scenes along the Nile, were the subjects considered.]

III. DOWN THE NILE TO CAIRO.

BY FREDERICK M. DAVENPORT.



YOU have noticed that Egypt grew young as we proceeded up the river. When we were at Philæ, we were only two thousand years away from our own time; when we were at Thebes, perhaps four thousand years.¹ Now we are almost back to Cairo, but we stop a few miles down the river upon the opposite shore and travel inland till we near the palms that mark the site of Memphis. Ah, here is age! Five thousand years ago, it may be six, where this clump of palms, this group of Arab huts now stands, there stood the mightiest political capital in all the world, and the oldest; so honored that the early kings were proud to build their tombs along the rocky margin of the adjacent desert; so wide that three days' journey could not compass it. "Here exiled Joseph rose to wealth and fame, and, bent with years, the trembling Israel came." Where is the great temple of Ptah, of which Herodotus speaks? Where is the sanctuary in which the bull-god, Apis, lived in state, taking his exercise in pillared courtyard, where every column was a statue? Where is the lake, the sacred grove, the obelisk, the palace, the precious sculpture? All, all are gone, and there remains of Memphis "only a few huge rubbish heaps, some broken statues, and a name." "Oh, daughter of Egypt," said the prophet Jeremiah, in the day when Egypt was mighty, "make ready that which will serve thee in thy captivity, because Memphis shall become a desert, she shall be forsaken and uninhabited."

On the site of Memphis.

One conspicuous object yet remains—the colossal statue of our old friend Rameses. The sole important relic of the glory of Memphis, he lay prostrate for centuries in the mud of the yearly inundation. He is now lifted where the overflow of coming years may not injure him. We shall meet Rameses once again in mummy form. Till then, old friend, farewell. Farther inland still, we get our first glimpse of the oldest monument in the world, the Step Pyramid of Sakkara. It had been standing perhaps a thousand years when Abraham was born. It has been opened and found to be a tomb.

One of the remarkable features of the Egyptian religion was the sacred character with which it invested various animals, the injury or killing of

Sacred bulls of Egypt.



¹ Abydos, about ninety miles north of Luxor, has recently become one of the most interesting places in Egypt. A short distance to the southwest stood the ancient city of This, the birthplace of Mena, one of the early kings of the first dynasty, who founded Memphis and built a great dam to turn aside the waters of the Nile. A somewhat mythical character has been attached to him until recent discoveries by Professor Petrie established his identity and that of seven others of the first dynasty kings who ruled Egypt 4,500 years before Christ. An earlier discovery at Abydos was the temple of Seti I. on one wall of which is a tablet containing seventy-six royal cartouches of the various kings from Mena to Seti. Half way between Abydos and Cairo are the famous rock cut tombs of Beni-Hassan, excavated in terraces at a great height above the river. "Their walls are covered with paintings, and many are adorned with pillared porches cut in the rock." The Doric order of Greece may be traced to the porches of Beni-Hassan and the temple of Thotmes III. at Karnak.

GENERAL VIEW OF
CAIRO AND THE
CITADEL.



which was punishable with death. Some of these animals were venerated all over the land; the cat, the dog-faced ape, and the beetle. Certain localities had patron saints in the shape of crocodiles, frogs, snakes, and fish. At Memphis, the sacred bull was worshiped, and received the name of Apis. When the bull died, he was embalmed and deposited in a costly tomb, while the priests ransacked the country round for another animal with the standard markings of black and white, into which it was supposed the divinity had taken his flight. A large line of tombs is especially known as the Apis tombs, from having been the depositories of the sacred bulls of Memphis. Guided by a forlorn and solemn Arab, we enter. The atmosphere is hot and oppressive. There is no dampness under ground in this country of cloudless sun. Lighting our way with candles, we proceed for hundreds of feet along mysterious, shadowy corridors. We pass twenty-four of these great granite coffins, some of them highly polished, and all rifled of their contents. The most intelligent Egyptian had far

higher conception of divinity than this. But such animal worship is not so absurd as at first it seems. It has always been difficult for humanity to think pure spirit. There had been many an inarticulate cry raised for a God made

THE TOMB OF TI
AT SAKKARA.



Egyptian noble-
man's tomb.

visible to men, before the Man of Nazareth came to do his earthly work.

Near by is one of the most instructive and interesting sights in all Egypt — the tomb of a wealthy nobleman of five thousand years ago, the Honorable Mr. Ti. The wealthy class of Egyptians began early in life, evidently, to plan the construction of tombs corresponding with their rank and station. These tombs were lined with smoothly cut stone, decorated

by the sculptor in relief, and finally by the painter in color. In niches were placed lifelike statues of the occupants. The whole history of the belief of these Memphis Egyptians concerning the future life is written on these walls. Nothing stands out so prominently in all Egypt as the ancient, deeply-rooted faith in immortality. This is the meaning of those wonderful processes of embalming the human bodies, of which we know so little. This is the meaning of the profuse offerings of food and drink which were left in the tomb for the silent occupant. This is the meaning of these engravings on the tomb of Ti. The representation of these offerings took the place of the real substance, if necessary. The *Ka*, or double, which inhabited the tomb with the mummy, must be provided for while the soul was undergoing its journey of purification in the unknown world. Until the day of the resurrection this double must be fed. So on the walls we see depicted the plowing, sowing, reaping and storing of the grain, the fattening of the poultry, and the driving of the cattle. The lone inhabitant of the tomb might choose from the pictures on the

Scenes depicted on the walls.

wall the animal that pleased him best—the kid, the ox, or the gazelle. A child might here read the history of Ti's life on earth. He was very prosperous. His shoemakers ply the awl. His glass-makers blow their tubes. His carpenters hew down trees and build ships. Groups of women weave and spin under the eyes of the taskmaster. There was business going on around the Ti premises in the good old days of long ago. He owned flocks, and herds, and a multitude of slaves. He was a kind husband and father. In the portrait sculptures, his wife and children and himself



INTERIOR OF THE
APIS TOMBS AT
MEMPHIS, SHOWING
LID OF THE
SARCOPHAGUS.

walk out together to view his lands and visit at the wharves when Ti's ships come in with produce from his distant farms. In one of the niches was found a statue of Ti, now preserved in the Cairo Museum, in true Egyptian style, twice as big as his wife and several times as large as his children. In Egyptian art the great man was always the great man, his own family were somewhat smaller, and the common people were only dwarfs.

Now we cross the river and return to Cairo, which is the limit of our journey; Cairo, the modern Paris of Egypt, the most fascinating city in all the land. We shall make our headquarters at Shepherd's, where one may secure all the comforts and luxuries of England or America with many of the novelties of the Orient. Seated on the spacious porch, one may witness, every hour of the day, bewildering, enchanting scenes that

Cairo.

will send the mind back dreaming to the boyhood stories of Arabian Nights. Syrian dragomans, barefooted Egyptian peasants, swarthy Bedouins of the desert with flowing robes, blue-black Abyssinians, Englishmen on horseback, Americans in carriages, lemonade venders, water carriers, caravans of camels loaded with sugar cane, Arabs and donkeys by the hundred ready for the conveyance of travelers, women bearing on their heads huge burdens, men testing the strength of their skulls with what seems as much as half a cord of wood: all busy, all in a

hurry, for an Arab is not lazy when he has something to do. And the street-cries in an unknown tongue—how they deafen and distract one! Taken all in all, the novelty of the scene is hardly to be met with elsewhere.

First we shall take a carriage ride and get a general view of the city. The first point we visit is the citadel. From this height we have an excellent view, with the mosque of Sultan Hassan in the foreground.

One of the most striking things, I think, to the stranger from a Christian land is the sight of the four hundred mosques piercing the heavens with their minarets, instead of the spires of Christian churches, and the reflection that we have here



THE MOSQUE OF
MOHAMED ALI AT
CAIRO.

not only another race but another religion, where the very name of Christian is spoken with hissing hate, and the fanaticism of Islam is tempered only by the presence and the power of European arms.

Mohammedans at
prayer.

On the parapets of the mosque of Mahomet Ali, two officers, or *muezzins*, as they are called, proclaim the hour of prayer. With their hands up to their ears they call five times a day in a loud voice: "Allah is great! I testify that there is no god but Allah, and Mahomet is the prophet of Allah. Come to prayer, come to worship; Allah is great. There is no god but Allah. To pray is better than to sleep." Faithful and devout Moslems pray five times a day, and they are not ashamed of being seen. It is their habit to pray when the appointed hours come around, no matter where they may be or how occupied. They go to the mosque to pray as in the picture, but they are as devout without. The camel driver dismounts and bows his forehead in the dust of the roadside, with his face turned towards Mecca, the holy city of his faith. The merchant spreads his carpet in front of his little shop. The boatman prostrates himself upon the deck. As the evening sun was sinking over the harbor of Beirut, I saw one thousand pilgrims, on the deck of a large steamer, *en route* to Mecca, bowing themselves together with their faces towards the east. There are those who hold that this is but the spirit of the Pharisee, but to me it seemed rather the simple expression of a devout and unaffected devotion. There is no sect among them who do it to be seen of men. As a nation, they perform this act of worship as a simple duty and as a matter of course.

Type of Egyptian
home.

We talk about the masses and the classes; we know nothing of it in this country as it is known in oriental lands. Mud huts are the only houses of by far the greater portion of the natives who inhabit the Nile country. They are built of Nile mud or sun-dried bricks, and rise to a height of six or eight feet. Within the walls of such a dwelling lives the

Egyptian of today, with his wife and children, in close companionship with his donkeys, his dogs and his pigeons. Scarcely an article of furniture redeems these comfortless abodes. A raised platform of dried mud will make a bed for the master of the house. There is little wood, the village refuse taking its place for fuel. The bread is baked in a public oven. Dust several inches deep serves as a carpet for the floor. This is the type of Egyptian home; albeit there are in Cairo and the larger towns buildings that remind us of those in Europe and America.

And finally, among the public institutions of the city we may take a glimpse at the interior of the University of Cairo, where from seven to ten thousand students daily study the Koran, or listen to lectures on the Mohammedan faith. The students sit cross-legged around the professor. This is the greatest Mohammedan institution of learning in the world, but the system of education is still in a most primitive condition, and there is an entire absence of independent thought.

Now let us walk, and get a little closer to the life of the people. It would be a hopeless undertaking to attempt to see even a tithe of the whole. This Egyptian Paris has its dark side, which cannot here be described. But it has also a side altogether unique and picturesque, which I shall attempt to depict. No lady can be happy in Cairo until she has visited the Muski, the great street of the bazaars. Each trade has its

Seat of Mohammed-an learning.

Streets and shops of Cairo.



section. The bazaars are all open to the street, and the wares, whatever they may be, are placed in piles upon the floor and shelves, while the dealer sits in the midst of them, or stands in front to allure the passer-by. Each one is crying out to somebody, or bantering good-naturedly with a passing friend. The street is crowded with carriages and donkeys, and donkey boys are shouting as if they were possessed. The din is something dreadful until one gets used to it, but every foot

MOSLEMS AT PRAYER.

of the way holds interest for the stranger. Close bargaining with an Arab is a work of fine art. It takes time and patience. He begins by asking you twice what the article is worth. You must begin by offering him one-half its value. As the day rolls on, you slowly get together, and just as the sun

¹Heliopolis, near Cairo, was the ancient seat of university learning in Egypt. Here Moses may have been trained "in all the wisdom of the Egyptians." It was also a very important religious center four to five thousand years ago. An imposing temple was erected here to the sun-god Ra. It was from this place, according to the Hebrew book of Genesis, that Joseph married his wife, "the daughter of the priest of On," or Heliopolis, — who was given him by Pharaoh. Nothing remains of the temple and colleges and stately palaces save a solitary but beautiful red granite obelisk sixty-eight feet high.

Woman's place in society.

goes down, and your patience is well-nigh exhausted, the article is yours at a fair price. But it is fun if you have the time and the genius for it. We are now out upon a broader street, and we come upon Mohammedan women returning home from market, with their faces veiled in obedience to the command of the Koran. The veil is not a mere bit of gossamer lace, but is of heavy material, with a hideous nose-piece of metal or bamboo, and is fastened to the head by cords. The women, in general, possess splendid figures, stand erect, and their eyes snap with animation. The covering of the face is not the only hardship their religion entails upon the gentler sex. Jewelry and gossip, sweetmeats, cigarettes and isolated dreariness fill out the aimless days of the harem women of rank. The poor peasant wives are happier; they work hard and are bitterly poor, but they know the fresh air and the sunshine of the fields. Women are allowed no place in the mosque save in the galleries behind the screen. Their souls are not considered as of value, and to have girl children is looked upon as an affliction most dire. The fact is, Mohammedanism, with its polygamy and its degradation of woman and family life, has laid well the foundation of its own destruction.

Camels and donkeys.

We might pause a moment to look at the market for camels, those supercilious, ill-tempered creatures who "carry fresh water cisterns in their stomachs," or at a donkey market. No animal has been upbraided more by travelers for his lack of ambition and his native stubbornness than the donkey. But my experience is that there are two kinds of donkeys,



A VEILED WOMAN.

just as there are two kinds of the rest of us, the good and the bad. I rode one at Luxor that belonged to the sheik of the village, which was as ambitious as Cæsar. In the collection of forty donkeys that started for the tombs of the kings he was the chief. We began the journey near the rear position. But the little fellow took a drink from the Nile, as we forded an inlet of the river, then stretched his neck up high and took a sniff of desert air, and with head uplifted and long ears and bright eyes pointed straight forward, he entered the race to see what he could do with it. He pushed his nose between two slower donkeys that

were in his way, and got past. Then he wheeled off to the right, edged himself along close to the bank, and hurried by half a dozen more. When at last he got to the head of the cavalcade, he stayed there. If the others walked, he walked just a little faster than they. If they began to canter, he was off in a jiffy. No donkey boy's whip was quick enough to reach him. It would have been sacrilege to touch him with a spur. And the close of a long day saw him still in the van, unwearied and undismayed.

The milk wagon in Cairo is quite an institution. The cow is led around to the houses of the various customers; the basin is brought out by the servant, and the process of milking proceeds on the spot. This method has its advantages; you can be sure the article is fresh, and has no more than its natural proportion of water.

Howling dervishes.

If we are in Cairo on Friday afternoon, we may go at two o'clock to the convent of the howling dervishes who perform one of the most fanatical of the religious ceremonies of the East. The dervishes are the hysterical emotionalists of the Mohammedan faith, a class common

enough to all religions, but having its own peculiar manifestation among the Mohammedans. When their worship begins, one reads the Koran, while another recites prayers, and musicians play a mournful melody on a strange collection of instruments. Then the dervishes gather in a circle, and begin to whirl or dance and chant: "Allah, Allah, Allah;" softly at first, then louder and louder, hoarser and hoarser, faster and faster. The frenzy deepens; they leap into the air, they fling their bodies backward, they shriek, they groan, until delirium takes the place of balanced reason. Oftentimes they fall to the ground panting and exhausted. Then they are "struck by Mohammed," according to their own interpretation. They were great tribes of this peculiar sect, led by the Mahdi, who strove to carry, with one mad rush, the modern Maxim guns of Kitchener at Khartum, and left their bodies by the thousand strewn upon the field.

We shall need a good night's rest, both for our bodies and for our imaginations, before we pass the crowning day of all in Egypt—an experience we shall



TYPICAL DONKEY
BOY.

long remember—at the Pyramids and the Sphinx. Refreshed by deep slumber, we start in the early morning and cross the river by a bridge plainly of English construction, the Kasr-en-Nil. It is market morning, early, and the crowds that move along make one grand and curious picture. Produce from the country is piled high on camel hump and donkey back, or poised upon the Arab head. At the west end of the bridge we come upon the great bazaar, where products are exchanged daily. Driving on, we pass an inlet of the Nile and see the natives washing buffaloes—animals in great demand in Egypt for the ploughing. Then our carriage rolls into a road leading through a grove of acacia trees. This is the highway to the Pyramids. If our start is made early, we shall see, soon after leaving the bridge, the tall trio looking gray and indefinite and rather small and unimpressive from a distance. But there is a quiet, masterly dignity about them, even now. The noise of the great city behind dies away, and feelings of serenity and majesty which these pyramids ever produce begin to fill the soul. "As the last mile was reached, our Arab driver suddenly shouted, '*Mashallah*,' wonderful God! for, lo! the whole eastern side of the great Pyramid was enveloped in the red glare of the rising sun." As you get nearer to it, and it towers close above your head, the effect is overwhelming. It shuts out the sky and the horizon. It shuts out the other Pyramids; there remains nothing but the great pile without and a sense of awe and majesty within. The size of the great Pyramid? You ask about its size? Well, think of any ground area of thirteen acres of land with which you are familiar—the base covers thirteen acres—and in imagination pile upon it, in pyramidal order, blocks of stone with an average thickness of three feet, until the apex shall reach a point four hundred and fifty feet above the foundation, and you will then have some idea of this colossal mass. What if Herodotus speak the truth, and it were necessary to employ a hundred thousand workmen, changed every three months for ten years, to make a causeway for the conveyance of the granite blocks from the first cataract and of limestone from the Mokattam hills? What if twenty years be added for building the Pyramid itself? It may be so. As you stand here in the morning sunrise, you feel it must be so.

To the Pyramids
and the Sphinx.

Size of the great
Pyramid.

PYRAMID OF
CHEOPS.



Climbing the
Pyramid.

The ascent is no easy task — four hundred and fifty feet to the summit. It is not made by elevator, as we go to the top of our Washington monument. It is made up the outside, and over steps or blocks of stone averaging at least three feet in height. And even with three or four Arab attendants to lift you along and keep you from falling, the task is more than many travelers can endure, under the rays of the hot tropical sun. But we shall try to make the climb. The Pyramid sheik, or his son, must first be seen, and the price fixed for the active, stalwart Arab helpers. And then the ascent begins. After a long pull, and a strong pull, and a pull altogether, we reach the coveted top of the Pyramid, a space about thirty feet square. One gets a marvelous view. The country is so flat and the atmosphere so clear that the range of vision is very great. On the one side is the desert, a mighty sea of drifting sand. On the other, the great cultivated valley dotted by villages, with its patches of brown and green, the ribbon of the Nile in the midst, and the delta spreading far and wide in the distance, till it is lost in the northern horizon. Fertility and desolation, life and death, in close proximity, while beneath your feet is the monument of a man perhaps five thousand years dead. And then we creep down the side of the Pyramid again, with a sense of awe and the feeling that somehow human life is a very short and very little thing, and eternity very great and very long.

The monuments of
kings.

What is the meaning of these mammoth piles? They are the most remarkable graves in all the world. Ancient Egypt believed with all her being in the immortality of the soul. The body must be preserved to the day of resurrection; hence the mummy. Now a man of humble origin who had risen to importance, like our friend Ti, of Memphis, might erect a temple that should withstand the ages. It behooved a greater man, the king of all the land, to raise a monument consistent with his rank and power, that should bear testimony to his greatness centuries after he had left the earth. This Cheops did five thousand years ago, and his pyramid yet remains. About fifty feet above the foundation has been found the entrance, facing in every tomb the east, or rising sun, expressive of the hope that some day the silent occupant might himself come forth into the brightness of the resurrection life.



THE SPHINX, WITH
PYRAMID OF
CHEPHREN IN THE
BACKGROUND.

Cheops's next door neighbor is Chephren. On this pyramid you may still see intact a portion of the outer casing at the top. Both had originally a smoothly polished granite covering. Centuries ago it was stripped by vandal hands from Cheops, and well-nigh from Chephren, to build mosques and palaces in Cairo.

We must not leave this spot, hallowed by the association of ages, without examining from all sides the famous Sphinx, about which we have read from childhood. It was hewn with immense toil from a mass of natural rock. Rising to a height of sixty-six feet, and spreading its great length one hundred and forty feet along the ground, it lies like "some once animated but now huge and petrified form of prehistoric birth, half buried in the shifting sands." The Sphinx to me is wonderfully impressive. I had been skeptical of the reports of travelers who have spoken with enthusiastic admiration of this carved block of stone, and was prepared to smile loftily at the monster and pass on. But it was my childish ignorance. Even in its sadly mutilated state, marred by wanton hands, defaced by bullets, I think it the noblest, most majestic sculptured face

Visit to the Sphinx.

into which I have ever looked. I shall never again use the expression, "solemn as a Sphinx." The Sphinx is not solemn. The face looks out across the desert with an expression of lofty, serene certainty, as if it were peering without fear into the unseen and the eternal. The Sphinx is the Egyptian 14th of John cut into stone. "Let not your heart be troubled: ye believe in God, believe also in Me. In my Father's house are many mansions: if it were not so I would have told you." There it lies, mute, mysterious and

PYRAMID OF
CHEPHREN SHOWING
REMNANT OF
ORIGINAL GRANITE
CASING.



alone. It looked upon the dynasties of old — Egyptian, Greek and Roman, yea, and Turk. These all are gone, and we shall die, and still the sleepless rock will watch and wait with that same tranquil, earnest mien, until the day shall break and the shadows flee away. The Pyramid grave is death; "the Sphinx is hope, hope set up at the door of death."

Riding a camel.

Reluctantly we leave this wondrous past. An uproar near at hand recalls us to the present. The camels with their turbulent drivers have come to convey us along the desert pathway to our carriage. Did you ever ride a camel? If you never have, be content and never try. I have heard the camel called the "ship of the desert." I had supposed this to be because he is the great burden-bearer of the desert road. It is not so; it is because no ship that plows the deep can induce seasickness of the most violent type so readily as he. It is well we have not far to go upon his rolling, pitching hump.

On our return to Cairo, midway of the road, we must not overlook the rich museum in which we might spend many a profitable day. It is crowded with instructive, interesting collections.



MUMMY PROFILE,
RAMESES II.

Collection of
antiquities.

There is, for example, one large case of necklaces and bracelets and golden ornaments of many kinds, inlaid with precious stones, wrought by goldsmiths four thousand years ago, which would create a sensation far and near as an exhibit in the Tiffany establishment in New York. The day is far spent, and we must pass them by. But we may take one peep into the mummy room, the most alluring spot of all, and look at the most important mummy in all Egypt — all that now remains of our familiar friend, great Rameses II. His mummy was found in the mountainside at Thebes in 1881, where it had been hidden for safety, ages upon ages. He seems like an old acquaintance, and we are prone to say with Hamlet: "I knew him, Horatio." Our interest in him began at Thebes and has continued until the present. It is a personal, living interest, too. What Pericles is to Athens, Rameses is to Egypt. He is the central figure in the history of this land. He was born great; he achieved greatness; for many years, until the growth of better knowledge, he had the greatness of other heroes thrust upon him; and he thrust greatness upon himself, for when his father died and left a large amount of temple property unfinished, it is suspected that Rameses chiseled out his sire's cartouche, and chiseled in his own, that posterity might believe he built it all himself. He was a great constructor and a thief. He was a great conqueror, but not, perhaps,

Mummy of
Rameses II.

²The Tel-el-Amarna tablets — letters of Egyptian kings and their correspondents in Babylonia, Assyria, Mitauni, Syria — were discovered by a peasant woman at Tel-el-Amarna, Upper Egypt, one hundred and eighty miles south of Cairo, on the Nile. They have been sold to different persons, and are now scattered. In Berlin (Royal Museum) are 181; in London (British Museum), 81; in Cairo (Gizeh Museum), 54; in private hands, 20. The letters relate to proposals of marriage, erection of palaces, and political affairs occurring about 1500 B. C. Among them is one much discussed letter from the governor of Jerusalem, in which he refers to the Khabiri as disturbing the province by their inroads. Were they the Hebrews making their first great incursions into Palestine? The names, in the original, are very similar. But to accept this theory would be to overturn a chronology which now appears well founded.

the greatest of his line. He was a great ruler, but he was not just and good, for investigation makes little doubt that we are gazing upon the face into which Moses looked. This is the Pharaoh of the Captivity, under whom the Hebrews suffered, who drove the children of Israel, with cruel whips and scorn, for whom they built the treasure cities mentioned in the Book of Exodus, Pithom and Rameses; and his son, Merenptah, who continued the oppression, was the Pharaoh of the Exodus. His cruelty to the Hebrews, we have sad reason to believe, he visited upon the other nations whom he conquered. So his every temple, palace, obelisk and statue means boundless pride and tyranny and the sacrifice of human lives. He was a splendid Pharaoh, of haughty bearing and commanding presence, who held many nations in his iron grasp, and was worshiped as a god supreme. But the world has moved since Rameses walked here, and no longer upon this earth may king or ruler live as Rameses lived, and be esteemed great. Yet his presence will be felt in Egypt to the end of time, and no name along the Nile so affects the imagination of the traveler as his. There is still a slight fringe of silky, almost yellow hair upon his head. His eyebrows are white, and his teeth remain almost perfect. His father, Sethos, lies beside Rameses, and possesses a stronger, better and more refined face than his son. He was found in the rocky chamber along with Rameses, and his body is in a striking state of preservation. He, too, is a man of personality and power; and, according to the discovered hymns belonging to his period, he seems to have been possessed of many amiable qualities. He was a mighty warrior, and many monuments attest his military glory. Between his hands, tight-folded on his breast, is a characteristic relic of ancient Egypt—a scarab, or sacred beetle, cut in jet, the symbol of eternal life. Perhaps you know the story of the Nile beetle; how it lays its eggs by the river's brink, encloses them in a little ball of mud, then rolls the ball up the bank to a safe place on the edge of the desert and hides it in the sand. One day out of the earth comes a new life, and the Egyptians seized upon it as the emblem of creative power and the resurrection. These scarabs were reproduced in stone, in gold, in ivory and in wood. They were worn by the living, they were buried in large numbers with the dead. On the reverse side was cut the cartouche or seal of the

Pharaoh of the
Captivity.



MUMMY OF
SETHOS I.

Sacred beetles.



It is difficult to get at the exact area of the Egypt of our day. The southern boundary has always been movable. The Mohammedan conquerors pushed it farther and farther inland, until it reached about two degrees north latitude. But this White Nile and Bahr-el-Ghazal region was soon lost again in 1883 through the rebellion of the Arab tribes under the Mahdi. These revolutionists wrested the entire Sudan as far as Lower Nubia from the Khedive. According to Baedeker, Egypt at the beginning of 1883 was, nominally, at least, as extensive as two-thirds of Russia in Europe. After 1883, and until the recent conquest of Kitchener, it shrank to a district which, in its productive and inhabited part, was no larger than Belgium. The English have regained the country at least as far as Khartum, which is about fifteen degrees north latitude, and have again largely increased the ancient area. British rule in Egypt will be considered in "The Rivalry of Nations," January.

VIEW ON THE
SUEZ CANAL.



owner. It is a fine bit of poetic imagination which would freight these little insects with so subtle and so beautiful a lesson. It is one more bit of testimony to the religious insight of this ancient people with respect to matters unseen and eternal.



Review Questions.

1. During what period of Egyptian history was Memphis the capital? 2. What are the Apis tombs of Memphis? 3. Describe the tomb of Ti. 4. Why is the Mohammedan character of Cairo especially noticeable in the view from the citadel? 5. How is it otherwise impressed upon the traveler? 6. Describe the typical Egyptian home of the mass of the people. 7. What is the approved custom in oriental bargaining? 8. How is woman regarded under the Moslem faith? 9. Describe the worship of the dervishes. 10. What are the dimensions of the Great Pyramid? 11. What is Herodotus' statement about its building? 12. Describe the Sphinx. 13. Give an account of Sethos I. 14. Of Rameses the Great. 15. Who was the Pharaoh of the Exodus?

Search Questions.

1. Where in Jeremiah does the prophecy mentioned concerning Egypt occur? 2. Who were the Mamelukes? 3. Who was Ptah Hotep? 4. What is the heroic poem of Pen-tatur? 5. What king is known as the Alexander the Great of Egypt? 6. What is the meaning of the Egyptian decoration which precedes these questions? 7. What famous scholar translated the Rosetta Stone? 8. Who was Arabi Pasha?

Bibliography.

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CRITICAL STUDIES IN FRENCH LITERATURE.*

III. "TARTUFFE:" A TYPICAL COMEDY OF MOLIÈRE.

BY JAMES A. HARRISON.

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It was one memorable day in 1664 that three acts of "Tartuffe," Molière's new comedy, were played before the king at Versailles, and the whole piece, a little later, before the fearless Prince de Condé. After this it was virtually suppressed until 1669, when it was resuscitated, and forty-four consecutive performances proved its vitality and — its irrepressibility. Up to this time Molière had scored rakes, bluestockings, fatuous men and foolish women of all kinds, misers, the whole picturesque and putrescent world of Paris with its endless fads and foibles; but one type, numerous in numbers, powerful in influence, had not been touched, — the religious hypocrite.

First appearance of the comedy.

As Molière himself says, in his famous preface to "Tartuffe":

"Here is a comedy about which much noise has been made; which was persecuted for years, while the persons it ridicules proved that they were much stronger in France than those I had hitherto laughed at. The marquises, the learned women, the luckless husbands, and the doctors had meekly borne their representation; in fact, they made believe to be amused, with the rest of the world, by the portraits made of them. But the hypocrites cannot bear ridicule; they were alarmed at once."

The Hypocrite — since "Tartuffe" — stands upon a pillar, like St. Simon Stylites, a monumental incarnation of a vice prevalent at all times in the world, but increasingly so in France as Louis XIV. tended toward his Pietistic dotage and cultivated religion as a fine art. Sainte-Beuve, in his "Port Royal," says:

Scores the hypocrite.

"It is undoubtedly true that Regnier, Rabelais, Henri Estienne, and the whole sixteenth century, also the middle ages and the authors of the *fabliaux*, and the troubadours of the 'Roman du Renart' had depicted and scorned a hypocrite; but the particular form of hypocrisy in the seventeenth century, that of Compromising Casuistry, Jesuitism in short, discerned and denounced by Pascal, was caught up and developed to its highest point by Molière in the character of 'Tartuffe.'"

All Molière had to do, — remembering Pascal — was to cast a discerning eye on the swarming Jesuits around him, in the pulpit, at the bar, in the salon, at the palace, and transfer their typical traits to his lifelike canvas once for all. The victim might wriggle under the paint, but he was fixed as in a gelatine mold, and his features floated before the public in a form as eternal as marble.

Source of the comedy.

For this marvelous comedy Molière received only hatred and abuse, and it was probably owing to "Tartuffe" that his body was refused Christian burial. "Monsieur Molière," says the librarian Baillet, "is one of the most dangerous enemies which this Age and the World have roused against the Church of Jesus Christ."

Author harshly criticized.

Bourdaloüe, the great orator, ends a sermon against "Tartuffe" by calling it a "damnable invention to humiliate godly men, to bring them under suspicion, and to deprive them of the liberty of declaring themselves openly in favor of virtue."

Even the great and good Bossuet cried out and said:

"Will you dare support in the sight of heaven plays in which virtue and piety are held up to ridicule? Posterity may, perhaps, know the end of this poet-comedian, who died while acting, and passed from the frivolity of the stage to the judgment-seat of Him who said, 'Woe to him who laughs, for he shall weep!'"

Molière was denounced as "a demon clothed in flesh, dressed as a man,

*No. I., An epic: "The Song of Roland," appeared in October. No. II., "Montaigne and Essay-Writing in France," appeared in November.

a free-thinker, an impious being deserving to be publicly burned," "himself a finished Tartuffe;" and the Archbishop of Paris fulminated against the play,—the man who, afterwards, refused Christian burial to Molière.

Popularity of the play.

But all this denunciation only added to the unbounded popularity of the play; every pure and virtuous household saw in it a safeguard against the insidious machinations of the Jesuits as they ingratiated themselves with the fathers of families and wove their pernicious webs over the consciences of men. Every household feared a "Tartuffe" in its midst; the alarm once given, the prowling wolf no longer sneaked around in snowy sheep's raiment, and the virtue of young girls and unsuspecting married women had one more safeguard. In these respects this play was a wonderful reform element, and Molière placed himself as a purifier of Augean stables beside Hercules, Luther, Erasmus, Pascal, and Junius.

Opening scene.

The opening scene of "Tartuffe" presents to us a vivid family picture in the reign of Louis XIV.: grandmother, daughter-in-law, granddaughter, grandson, son, servants, gathered together and animatedly discussing the character of a certain Monsieur Tartuffe.

If "conversation was born in France at the Hôtel de Rambouillet," Molière worthily perpetuated its traditions in his swift and brilliant dialogue. Madame Pernelle, the old grandmother, and her son Orgon are fascinated by Tartuffe's polished elegance and vigorously defend him against the attacks of Damis, the son, who has scented the sneak under the perfumed polish:

Orgon. If you had seen him as I first saw him, you would have felt the friendship that I feel. He came to church each morning, and with a humble air knelt down beside me upon both knees. He drew the eyes of all the congregation to him by the fervor with which he prayed to heaven; he sighed, he seemed in ecstasy, and humbly kissed the earth from time to time. Then, when I rose to go, he hastened forward to the door to offer me the holy water. Learning from his valet, who copies him in all things, who he was and his great poverty, I made him gifts. But he, with modesty, desired to give me back a part. "It is too much," he said, "too much by half; I scarce deserve your pity." And when I still refused to take the money back, he went, before my eyes, and gave it to the poor. At last heaven led me to invite him to my home; and since that day all things have prospered here. He has corrected much; even in my wife he takes the deepest interest for my honor's sake. He warns me of the gallants who make soft eyes at her; for me he is more jealous than I am for myself. In fact, you could scarce believe to what a point his pious zeal can carry him. His conscience thinks the merest trifle sin; the veriest nothing is enough to shock him; he even went so far the other day as to accuse himself for having caught a flea while he was praying, and then of killing it with too much anger.—*Act I., Scene VI.**

A "family jar."

This leads, in Act II., to the evolution of a delightful "family jar"—a jar *en famille*—in the time of the Grand Monarque. Orgon insists on breaking Mariane's (his daughter's) engagement to Valère, a worthy young man, and marrying her to the "fine gentleman" Tartuffe, whose honeyed phrases and exquisite flatteries have captured the old man's heart. Mariane, for the sake of peace, weakly yields and is satirically attacked by her maid Dorine who says:

Dorine. No, I want nothing. I see you wish to belong to Monsieur Tartuffe; and I, now that I think of it, should be foolish indeed to turn you from such a marriage. What reason can I give to oppose your wishes? The match, in itself, is very advantageous. Monsieur Tartuffe! oh, oh! he's not to be sneezed at. Monsieur Tartuffe, indeed! to take the thing rightly, he's not a fool, not he, to blow his nose with his toes! It is no slight honor to be his better half, for the world is already crowning his name! He is noble by birth, and well-made in person; his ears are pink and his skin rosy! Oh, yes, you'll live content with such a husband!—*Act II., Scene III.*

A sharp-tongued woman.

Molière always has some saucy, sharp-tongued woman at hand to render justice to the occasion and act as a superintending Providence. Here it is Dorine.

Tartuffe appears.

In Act III., Scene II., Tartuffe appears in person for the first time, and we let him speak for himself as he converses with Dorine and Elmire (wife of Orgon), revealing his character unconsciously as he rolls off his

*The translations are taken from Miss K. P. Wormeley's excellent translation of Molière, 6 vols., Roberts Bros., 1894.

unctuous periods; it is the purring of the cat while its ivory claws are gleaming under the fur:

ACT III.—SCENE II.

Tartuffe, Dorine.

Tartuffe. (*As soon as he sees Dorine, he speaks loudly to his valet, who is within the house.*) Laurent, put away my hair-shirt, and also my scourge, and pray that heaven may enlighten you. If any one calls to see me, say that I have gone to give alms with my last farthing to the prisoners.

Dorine. (*Aside.*) What affectation! and what boastfulness!

Tartuffe. (*To Dorine.*) Do you want me?

Dorine. Yes, to tell you —

Tartuffe. Ah! in God's name, I pray you, before you say a word, take this handkerchief.

Dorine. What for?

Tartuffe. To cover that bosom which I must not see. Those are sights that wound the soul, and fill our minds with guilty thoughts.

Dorine. You must be very open to temptation if flesh can make such great impression on your senses. * * *

Tartuffe. Put into your speech more modesty, or I must instantly leave the room.

Dorine. No, no, 'tis I to leave you; I have but a word to say. Madame is coming to this lower room, and asks the favor of an interview.

Tartuffe. Alas! most willingly.

Dorine. (*Aside.*) How he softens at her name! Faith, I keep to my opinion.

Tartuffe. Will she come soon?

Dorine. I think I hear her. Yes, 'tis she herself. I leave you now together.

SCENE III.

Elmire, Tartuffe.

Tartuffe. May heaven, in its great mercy, ever grant you health of soul and body; may it bless your days according to the prayer of him who is the humblest of those its love inspires.

Elmire. I am most grateful for that pious wish. But let us sit down, that we may talk at ease.

Tartuffe. (*Seated.*) Do you feel yourself recovered from your illness?

Elmire. (*Seated.*) Entirely; the fever soon gave way.

Tartuffe. My prayers have not the efficacy needed to draw that mercy from on high; but I made no pious entreaty toward heaven that did not have your convalescence for its object.

Elmire. Your care for me is far too anxious.

Tartuffe. Who could cherish your dear health too much? To restore it I would gladly sacrifice my own.

Elmire. That is carrying Christian charity too far; but, indeed, I owe you much for all this kindness.

Tartuffe. I do far less for you than you deserve.

Elmire. I have wished to speak to you in private of a certain matter; and I am very glad to meet you here alone.

Tartuffe. And I am equally delighted. To find myself alone with you is very sweet to me, madame. 'Tis an occasion I have often asked of heaven, although, until today, it has not been granted to me.

Elmire. What I desire is a moment's interview, in which your heart would open itself fully and hide nothing from me.

(*Damis, without being seen, slightly opens the door of the cabinet in which he is concealed and listens to the conversation.*)

Tartuffe. And I desire, also, the signal mercy of laying before your eyes my inmost soul, and of assuring you, with solemn oath that the rumors I have spread of visitors to your attractions are not the effect of any hatred toward you, but rather of a zealous transport which impels me, and a pure —

Elmire. That is how I take it; I believe that my salvation is the object of your care.

Tartuffe. (*Taking Elmire's hand and pressing it.*) Yes, undoubtedly, madame; and my fervor is such —

Elmire. Ah! you press my hand too hard.

Tartuffe. 'Tis through excess of zeal. To give you pain could never be my wish; indeed, I would sooner — (*Lays his hand on Elmire's knee.*)

Elmire. Why do you put your hand there?

Tartuffe. To feel your gown; the stuff is soft.

Elmire. Ah! for heaven's sake, don't. * * * (*Pushes back her chair. Tartuffe advances his.*)

Elmire. That is true. But let us talk of our affair. They say my husband wishes to take back his word, and marry you to his daughter. Is it true? Tell me.

Tartuffe. He did say something of it. But, to speak truth, madame, that is not the happiness for which I long. I find elsewhere the wondrous charm of joys to which my heart aspires.

Tartuffe. (*Fingering Elmire's sleeve.*) How marvelously fine is this embroidery! With what miraculous art they work in these days. Never, in any age, were such things better done.

Elmire. You mean you do not love the things of earth.

Tartuffe. My bosom does not hold a heart of stone.

Elmire. I know that all your aspirations rise to heaven, and nothing here below can win your thoughts.

Tartuffe. The love which binds us to eternal beauties does not suppress in us all earthly love; our senses may most easily be charmed by perfect beings formed by heaven. Its reflected light shines in your fellow-women, but in you it puts forth all its choicest marvels; it sheds upon your face a beauty which astounds all eyes, transports all hearts! Never have I seen you, perfect creature, that I did not admire in you the Author of nature, and feel my soul uplifted by the sight of this most beauteous likeness of Himself. At first I apprehended that this secret ardor was but a cunning pitfall of the Evil One. My heart resolved to flee your presence, believing that you hindered my salvation. But, finally, I came to know, endearing beauty, that such a passion might not be guilty, but was, indeed, compatible with purity. 'Twas then I yielded my whole heart to you. It is, I own, a great audacity to dare to offer you that heart. But my desires rely upon your kindness, and not on the vain efforts of my imperfections. In you is all my hope, my welfare, my tranquillity. On you depends my blessedness, or misery; and I am now to be, by your decision, happy, if you will,—wretched, if it pleases you.

Elmire. This declaration is indeed gallant; but it is, to tell the truth, somewhat surprising. You ought, it seems to me, to guard your breast from such emotions, and reason more on a design like this. A godly man whom everybody calls—

Tartuffe. Because I am devout, I am not less a man; and when a man beholds your heavenly charms his heart is captured, he no longer reasons. I know that such address from me seems strange; but, madame, after all, I'm not an angel; and if you blame the avowal I have made, you must lay the fault upon your sweet attractions. No sooner did I see their more than human splendor than you became the sovereign ruler of my inward being. The ineffable sweetness of your gentle eyes subdued the resistance on which my heart resolved; it vanquishes all, fasts, prayers, and tears, and turned my hopes and wishes to your charms. My eyes, my sighs have told you this a score of times; but now, to express it fully, I employ my voice. If you will ponder with a gracious mind the sufferings of your most unworthy slave, and grant them consolation, if to my nothingness you deign abase yourself, I will ever give you, oh sweet enchantress! unparalleled devotion. * * *

The young court gallants whom the women worship are proud of their deeds and boastful in their speech. They plume themselves on their successes; they win no favors they do not divulge; and their indelicate tongues, to which so much is trusted, dishonor the altars at which they worship. But men of another stamp love with discreet devotion; with them, a woman may be sure of secrecy. The care we take to guard our own good name is guarantee enough for her we love. * * *

Elmire. I have listened to what you say; and your rhetoric explains itself quite clearly to my mind. Do you not fear I may incline to tell my husband of your gallant ardor, and that the knowledge of a love like yours may change the friendship he now feels for you?

Tartuffe. No, you are too kind-hearted. I know that you will pardon my temerity; you will excuse as human frailty these violent transports of a love that wounds you, and you will own, remembering your charms, that eyes are not blind, and that man is flesh.

Elmire. Others, perhaps, might take the matter differently, but my discretion can maintain itself. I shall not tell my husband of your suit, but, in return, I want a pledge from you. It is, to honestly promise, without a quibble, the marriage of Mariane to Valère, and to renounce, yourself, the unjust power which seeks to take the prospects of another man to enrich your own.

Damis suddenly emerges from a closet and confronts Tartuffe with his villainy. Orgon, the father, comes in, and Tartuffe with masterly cunning and self-possession regains his composure as follows:

ACT III.—SCENE VI.

Orgon. What have I heard! Oh, heavens! is it believable?

Tartuffe. Yes, my brother, I am wicked, guilty, a miserable sinner, filled with iniquity, the greatest criminal that ever lived. Each moment of my life is stained with evil; 'tis but a mass of crime and filth. I see that heaven, for my chastisement, wills to mortify me upon this occasion, and whatever sin is charged against me I must not let my pride defend me. Believe what you are told; yield to your wrath, and drive me from you like a criminal. No shame can be my portion but what my sinful soul deserves yet more.

Orgon. (*To his son.*) Ah! traitor, do you dare to stain the whiteness of his virtue by your lies?

Damis. What! can the feigned meekness of that hypocrite make you deny—

Orgon. Hush! cursed tongue.

Tartuffe. Ah! let him speak; you blame him wrongfully. 'Twere wiser to believe his tale. Why be, after hearing of such facts, so favorable to me? Do you really know of what I am capable? Are you not trusting, brother, to the outward show, thinking me good by what you only see? No, no, you let yourself be tricked by mere appearance. I am, alas, the reverse of what men think me. The world supposes me a virtuous man, but the

unvarnished truth is—I am not. (*Addressing Damis.*) Yes, speak, dear son; speak! call me traitor, villain, outcast, thief, or murderer; crush me with other names still more degrading. I shall not contradict you, I deserve them; here, on my knees, I wish to bear this ignominy as the just shame for all my sinful life.

Orgon is convinced that Tartuffe is innocent and orders his son to leave the house, saying to Tartuffe concerning Elmire (his wife):

Orgon sends his son away.

ACT III.—SCENE VII.

* *Orgon.* No! in the face of all you shall be with her constantly. To antagonize the world is my great happiness. I wish her to be seen with you at all times. But that is not the whole of what I wish. To brave the world the better, I am resolved to have no other heir than you; and I shall now proceed, in some safe manner, to make you the gift of all my property. A good and honest friend, whom I have chosen for my son-in-law, is dearer far than son or wife. You will accept, I hope, what I propose.

Tartuffe. God's will be done in all things!

Orgon. Poor man! let us go at once and have the papers drawn. May envious hearts now burst with spite!

In the celebrated scenes of Act IV. the plot culminates in the effort of Tartuffe to seduce Elmire, who, to convince her husband of the hypocrite's baseness, hides Orgon under the table while she decoys Tartuffe to reveal his true nature, believing himself alone with her. The thin veil of religious pretense is rent in twain and the voluptuary stands in all his hideousness, before the horrified and humiliated husband!

Culmination of the plot.

ACT IV.—SCENE VII.

Tartuffe, Elmire, Orgon.

* *Tartuffe.* (*Not seeing Orgon.*) All things are favorable, madame, to my happiness.

(*While Tartuffe advances with open arms to embrace Elmire, she moves aside and he sees Orgon.*)

Orgon. (*Stopping Tartuffe.*) Gently! your amorous desires carry you too far; you should not thus give way to passion. Ah! ah! my godly man! so this is what you do for me: you marry my daughter, and you court my wife! Ha! to what temptations you abandon your soul! Long did I think you honest and sincere; I thought the rest would change their tone. But here is testimony that need go no farther; I hold to this; for my part, it is all I want.

Act V. describes the financial ruin of Orgon who, before the revelation of Tartuffe's baseness, had signed a paper transferring all his property to the impostor, and disinheriting his son. An element of tragedy is thus thrust for a moment into the world of laughter, which quickly changes from smiles to tears; but the sorrow is an April shower. It is shown that Tartuffe is a wicked adventurer, a vile conspirator, against whom the king, a foe to all fraud, intervenes just in the nick of time, with righteous indignation and saves "The Serious Family," as Tom Taylor, in his English version of this famous play made forty-five years ago, calls "Tartuffe." Valère and Mariane of course are united and live happily (we infer) ever afterward.

The element of tragedy appears.

Orgon. Beneath so noble an exterior of touching fervor to hide a heart so double, a soul so wicked! And I, who welcomed him a beggar having nothing! Well, 'tis all over with me now! I renounce all intercourse with pious men; henceforth I hold such characters in horror, and I will be a very devil in pursuit of them.—*Act V., Scene I.*

In this play, as Sainte-Beuve truly remarks, Molière reached the pinnacle of his art; henceforth the religious hypocrite who sneaked about the seventeenth-century Parisian home was dethroned, and his reputation was forever demolished.

Summit of Molière's art.

"Courage, Molière, this is true comedy!" cried an old man in the audience that saw "*Les Précieuses Ridicules*" (a light comedy ridiculing the airs and graces of the learned women of the time.)

In "Tartuffe" there was the profoundest underlying meaning, and in it Molière places himself on the high and serene plane of Pascal, of Montaigne, of the great moralists whose mission was to teach purity and virtue.



"Life of Molière." By Oliphant and Tarver. Brief sketches of him will also be found in the works on French Literature, by Van Laun and Brunetiere. "Molière and his Friends," in "The Stones of Paris," by B. E. and C. M. Martin.

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THE INNER LIFE OF MADAME GUYON.*

✠ ✠ BY JESSE L. HURLBUT. ✠ ✠



IN the heights of sainthood there is an inner circle, where sit St. John and St. Paul, Bernard of Clairvaux and Thomas à Kempis, the two Saints Francis — he of Assisi, and he of Sales — Tauler of Germany and Theresa of Spain, Archbishop Fénelon of France and Archbishop Leighton of England, with a few other choice spirits out of many lands, and creeds, and churches; a circle of peace, of quiet and deep communion with God, and of likeness to Christ which only they bear who have lived long with Him in spirit. In this holy fellowship a high seat is set for Jeanne Marie Bouviers de la Mothe Guyon, a daughter of God, and a mother of many souls in Christ.

Birth and
parentage.

She was born in 1648, at Montargis, fifty miles south of Paris, on the river Seine. Her father was Claude Bouviers, a wealthy gentleman, though not a nobleman; and her home was the abode of refinement, of culture, and of earnest religion, according to the pattern of the age and the land. The old church at whose font she was baptized and before whose chancel she was confirmed is standing; and in her native village her name is still remembered with honor.

Early training.

But Jeanne Marie saw little of that elegant home, for most of her childhood and youth were passed in convent schools, with their unreal world and artificial ideals. In such surroundings a young girl might obtain a preparation for either the court or the cloister, but very little for genuine home-life. The court this girl happily missed, though but barely, for in her precocious childhood she fell under the notice of Henrietta Maria, the widowed queen of Charles I. of England, who tried to bring her into the palace of Versailles as a maid of honor. Her own choice was for the convent, and it required all the firmness and sense of her father to prevent her from wasting her splendidly endowed nature within its walls. Later, she learned to recognize the Providence which kept her from the cloister for a larger life in the world.

Marriage and home
life.

At sixteen she was suddenly married by her father to Jacques Guyon, twenty-two years older than herself. To the marriage altar she walked with tears, almost with terror; for she had not seen her husband until three days before; he was worldly-minded, cold-hearted, gouty, and prematurely aged; while she was a tall, handsome young girl, with strong nature, having more of the oak than the vine in her spirit. For the next twelve years, from 1664 to 1676, her life was passed with an invalid husband, a shrewish mother-in-law, and servants whose principal occupation seemed to be that of spies upon her, keeping count of the times she said her prayers, and went to church, and read her Bible. Any one who reads the story of her married life, as written by herself, — even after making allowance for the personal equation in the record, — can scarcely wonder that when her husband died she expressed her feelings in the words, "O God, Thou hast broken my bonds; and I will offer to Thee a sacrifice of praise!" Nor was this altogether from lack of love for her departed husband; it was rather a consciousness that she was now freed from earthly ties, and could enter upon the vocation to which an inner voice was calling her.

Fixed religious
character.

For this young woman of twenty-eight was already fixed, and had been for eight years, in that peculiar religious character from which she never swerved during a long life, a character which she carried alike into court and convent, into school and social relations, even in the face of persecu-

*This is the third CHAUTAUQUAN study of the Inner Life of Historic Figures in France and Greece. Fénelon appeared in October; Pascal was published in November.

tion, to prison and to banishment. Her earthly marriage had been loveless, though by no fault of herself, but she had a Heavenly Spouse, whom she loved with a consuming fire, through honor and dishonor, in evil report and in good report, until death brought her joyfully to His presence.

From early childhood she had felt the strivings of a soul which was restless for rest in God. In her youth she had set before herself the crown of martyrdom, and sorrowed bitterly when the door was shut against her going as a missionary to Cochin-China, where there was some opportunity of realizing her hope. She had tried to mortify the flesh by fastings, by self-scourgings, by wearing a shirt of hair, by mixing bitter herbs in her food, by enduring joyfully the toothache, when it came, and after it had ceased, by having her tooth pulled out,—which was no small torture in those days,—by praying for the smallpox, and when it passed away rejoicing that it had removed her temptation to vain thoughts over her beauty. Learning that martyrs had been tortured with melted lead, and unable to obtain any, she poured melted sealing-wax upon her flesh; and she wore over her heart a cross on paper, sewn to her body. But despite all her austerities and mortifications, and the oft-repeated absolution of her priest, her soul remained still unsatisfied.

Aspirations and endeavors.

One day, four years after her marriage, and at the age of twenty, she met a monk of the order of St. Francis, to whom she told the story of her aspirations, her wrestlings, and her failure to find peace. Here is her own account of his answer:

“He presently replied: ‘It is, madame, because you seek without what you have within. Accustom yourself to seek God in your heart, and you will find him.’ Having said these words, he left me. They were to me like the stroke of a dart which pierced my heart asunder. I felt at this instant deeply wounded with the love of God; a wound so delightful that I desired it might never be healed. O my Lord, Thou wast in my heart, and demanded only the turning of my mind inward to make me feel Thy presence.”

It was on July 22, 1668, the feast-day of St. Mary Magdalene in the calendar, that she, as she wrote, “entered into rest in God.” Thenceforward,—though with some interruption for a season,—she lived to the end of her days “an interior life,” a life of the soul, in communion with God, independent of her surroundings. She did not go out of the world,—in fact, she showed remarkable executive ability in practical affairs, for a sturdy common sense, inherited from her father, was the balance-wheel in her character. She did not,—as she might have done, and was repeatedly urged to do, after her husband’s death,—retire to a convent, even when she was promised the office of mother superior. She carried into the world around her her convictions, her character, and her influence, both conscious and unconscious, toward the life of consecration and of faith.

Her “interior life.”

The great danger of mysticism in all ages,—a danger from which the higher Christian life in our time is by no means exempt,—has been that when a man believes that God dwells within him, he is apt to mistake his own impulses, and especially his own prejudices, for the voice of God. From this error Madame Guyon was not entirely free, though she was led astray by it far less than most men and women who are guided by “the inner light.” Not only her common sense, but also her constant and close study of Holy Scripture kept her from many pitfalls in belief and practise. The feast-day of St. Mary Magdalene was ever after her entrance upon the new life kept as a sacred anniversary. On that day, in 1672 (aged twenty-four), she drew up a solemn act of consecration to Christ as His spouse, sealed with her ring, and signed with blood drawn from her veins. When, on that same day in 1676 her husband died, she saw in the coincidence of date the token that the last tie to earth had been sundered, and she rejoiced in her freedom.

Consecration to Christ.

She was now twenty-eight years old, a young widow, gracious in manner, and noble in appearance, notwithstanding the ravages of smallpox. During her married life five children had been born, of whom three were

still living. Her fortune was her own, bringing her an annual income of forty thousand livres,—about eight thousand dollars,—which, in that time, was the equivalent of five times as much as it would be now; so that Madame Guyon was a rich woman. She was at liberty to live where she pleased, but chose for a time to remain with her disagreeable mother-in-law, mainly, it would appear, for the greater crossing of her own desires and the discipline of her religious character. For a few years during this period her interior life varied, and there were times when she failed to realize the divine peace. Such experiences are not unusual with introspective natures, who are in danger of measuring their grace by the degree of their emotions. But in 1680, on that notable St. Magdalene's day, her "soul was delivered from all its pains." "On this day," she says, "I was, as it were, in perfect life, and set wholly at liberty." And this state of joy, and peace, and communion, was hers for the rest of her life.

Renunciation of family ties.

The vocation to live for others, to impart the blessing which she possessed, to become the spiritual mother of many children, now sounded imperatively in her ears, and she obeyed its summons. Her children were now of an age sufficient to be left with their relatives and in the convent school, except the youngest, whom she took with her. She settled upon them all her fortune, except three thousand livres (about seven hundred and fifty dollars), and this she put into the fund of a sisterhood with which she lived for a year. She reserved nothing, even for charity. For years she had been longing and praying for the bliss of poverty, now she began to enjoy it. Concerning the renunciation of her family ties, she wrote:

"The ties with which God held me closely united to Himself were infinitely stronger than those of flesh and blood. The laws of my sacred marriage obliged me to give up all, to follow my Spouse whithersoever it was His pleasure to call me after Him."

Life as an evangelist.

For six and a half years, between 1681 and 1688, Madame Guyon lived as an evangelist in many places in France, Switzerland and northern Italy. If she stayed as a guest in a convent, many of the sisters, and often its superior, would be drawn by her conversation and her conduct to adopt "the interior life," and to become her "children." As a noblewoman she had access to the houses of the nobility, and drew around her a following of those who were weary with the hollowness of the court, and aspired for a nobler life. There was a strange power dwelling in her, which spoke in her voice, and shone in her face. It was said, "One needs but look at her to see that God was in her soul."

Influence of her character.

Few people could come into personal contact with her without in some degree yielding to her charms. Archbishop Fénelon began by disliking her, but soon was conquered, became one of her children, learned from her the way of consecration, and was her devoted follower and champion. Whoever reads the remarkable letters between Fénelon and Madame Guyon will readily see who was the master and who the disciple. His loyalty to her and her opinions caused him the loss of his arch-episcopal see, and an after life of poverty and banishment; a life which he accepted with entire content. Madame de Maintenon, "the left-hand wife" of Louis XIV., lost all her prejudices when Madame Guyon talked with her, and allowed her to propagate her views among the noble young girls in the St. Cyr boarding-school, which experienced such a revival as alarmed the court with an anxiety lest all its daughters should adopt the "interior life" and cease from frivolity. Even Bossuet, bishop of Meaux, and arch-persecutor, narrow-minded and intolerant as he was, yielded for a time to her enchantments when she passed a few weeks in his palace, and approved both her and her writings; though he afterward retracted his indorsement and became her bitterest enemy.

Deserted by fortune.

After a time the tide of favor turned with Madame Guyon. Suspicions were in the air, reports and innuendoes were circulated, and

finally, in January, 1688, she was accused, arrested, and placed as a prisoner in the convent of St. Marie, in Paris. Here she remained for a year,—and, it may be noted, during her imprisonment transformed her jailers into her friends. Here she completed her autobiography, which she had begun two years before at the command of a priest, Father La Combe, who was her confessor, as she was his spiritual guide. She wrote this as the closing sentence of her record: "Done this 22nd of August, 1688, aged forty years, in my prison, which I love and cherish, as I find it sanctified by my Lord." Some years later, however, she wrote several supplemental chapters, bringing her story down finally to 1709, within eight years of her death.

It is difficult to state the technical accusation upon which Madame Guyon was incarcerated in the convent of St. Marie, a few years later in the castle of Vincennes, and then in the ill-omened Bastille. Those were the days of royal warrants, and *lettres de cachet*, and anonymous charges, when men and women went to prison, often ignorant alike of their accusation and their accuser. She was no Protestant; indeed she expressed the greatest sorrow for the errors of the misguided Huguenots,—though none for the persecution of them,—and longed to convert them to the true faith. A thousand teachers like her might have done more to win the Calvinists than all the dragonades and imprisonments and banishments under Louis XIV. She was faithful to the rites of her church, worshiped the saints, adored the relics of martyrs, believed in penances and self-mortification, and showed due respect for ecclesiastical authority. Nevertheless, without knowing it, she was a Protestant in two great essentials of Protestantism, a faith in Christ without priestly mediation, and an interpretation of scripture without priestly guidance. She needed no ecclesiastic to bring her soul into communion with Christ, and none to tell her what God meant in His written word. Let a whole generation accept such teachings, and what would become of priests and monks, bishops, cardinals, and the pope himself?

So to prison Madame Guyon went, cheerfully, even gladly,—for her Lord could not be kept out by prison walls; and in prison she passed twelve years, most of the time from 1688 to 1702. When finally she was released, it was not to enjoy freedom. She was banished to Blois, where the closing years of her life were passed in retirement. Even there, like her Master, she could not be hid, for she maintained a wide correspondence with friends in every part of France, and so many people visited her that her little home became almost a Mecca for pilgrims. On June 9, 1717, in her seventieth year, her earthly life ended, and the heaven for which she had longed opened to receive her.

She wrote many books, and her *Œuvres* fill forty volumes. Most widely read among them are her published letters to Archbishop Fénelon and others, which are valuable contributions to the literature of the life spiritual. In 1683 she wrote a little book called "Torrents," in which souls seeking after God are compared to rivers seeking the sea: "Some of these rivers you see moving majestically and slowly, others more rapidly; and some are torrents, running with an impetuosity that nothing can check." Each kind of stream represents a class of souls living the life of love for God; and her book gives an analysis of the successive steps by which the torrent reaches the sea of complete union with the divine life.

Her "Short and Easy Method of Prayer" has been translated into many languages, and stands as one of the most popular among books of devotion. Its merits are many; but it must be measured beside the mechanical and churchly conceptions of worship prevalent in her time, if its worth is to be realized. Madame Guyon saw what few in her age saw,—that the human soul can enter into immediate, direct, and deep communion with the divine.

Religious beliefs.

Life in prison.

Work as a writer.

Autobiography.

Her autobiography, mostly written while she was in prison, was not intended for publication, but was a sort of *apologia sua vita*, to be read only by her confessor, and perhaps a few friends. Many of its details are trivial, and in portions there is a morbidly introspective quality. Still, with all allowances made, "The Life and Religious Experience of Madame Guyon" is a remarkable book, revealing the depths of a great soul.

She began a commentary upon the scriptures, and wrote five volumes; but as she consulted no authorities, made no preparation, and wrote it so rapidly that (as she states) what she indited in one day required a scribe four days to copy in a legible hand, the work shows too great fluency, not to call it verbosity, to be of permanent value.

Poems and songs.

While in prison she composed a volume of poems and songs, many of which were translated by Cowper, receiving the benefit in the rendering of his own genius. Their poetic quality may be found in the following, which is only a fair example out of many:

" A little bird I am,
Shut from the fields of air;
And in my cage I sit and sing
To Him who placed me there.
Well-pleased a prisoner to be,
Because, my God, it pleaseth Thee.

" Nought have I else to do;
I sing the whole day long;
And He whom most I love to please
Doth listen to my song.
He caught and bound my wandering wing;
But still He bends to hear me sing.

" O, it is good to soar
These bolts and bars above.
To Him whose purpose I adore,
Whose providence I love;
And in Thy mighty will to find
The joy, the freedom, of the mind."

" My cage confines me round,
Abroad I cannot fly;
But, though my wing is closely bound
My heart's at liberty.
My prison-walls cannot control
The flight, the freedom of the soul.

" Thou hast an ear to hear,
A heart to love and bless;
And though my notes were e'er so rude,
Thou wouldst not hear the less;
Because Thou knowest, as they fall,
That love, sweet love, inspires them all.

Wide and lasting influence.

Madame Guyon's influence was felt more widely and more permanently in other lands than in her own. The movement for spiritual religion which she awakened was soon quelled by the machinery of the church and the state, and within two generations its effect was hardly apparent upon the surface of French life. If it be true, as a great historian has declared, that the Methodist revival of the eighteenth century saved England from the horrors of the French Revolution, it might also be said that if France in the seventeenth century had adopted the spirit of Madame Guyon, had followed Fénelon instead of Bossuet, there might never have been a Robespierre and a Reign of Terror.

But England, essentially a religious nation, early adopted the best of Madame Guyon's teaching. Her life and her writings were an inspiration to Barclay, and powerfully influenced the Quakers in their early and enlarging influence. Indeed, an eminent writer among the Quakers has called her "the mother of Quakerism." Her songs, in Cowper's translation, were sung in all the churches, and are found in many hymnals. It is evident that her opinions and experience were among the forces that guided the mind of John Wesley, — who wrote her life for his followers, — and through Wesley influenced almost untold millions in continents afar. For the point of contact in Quakerism and Methodism is the acceptance of "the inner light," or "Christian experience," and this flame, long hidden, and known to only a few saints through the centuries, Madame Guyon uncovered, that it might shine anew upon the world.



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GLORIA IN EXCELSIS.
 'Tis Christmas night! Again —
 But not from heaven to earth —
 Rings forth the old refrain
 "A Saviour's Birth!"
 Nay, listen: 'tis below!
 A song that soars above,
 From human hearts aglow
 With heavenly love!

—John B. Tabb.



A LETTER FROM THE CHANCELLOR.

The members of the Class of 1900 at Chautauqua this summer sent to Chancellor Vincent a copy of the class photograph, a sprig of the class evergreen, and a letter of greeting. These were duly received at Zurich, Switzerland, the home of Bishop Vincent for the next four years. This class message brought the following reply, which will be welcomed by all Chautauquans of every class:

ZURICH, Oct. 5, 1900.

DEAR FELLOW CHAUTAUQUAN:

The word of greeting from the Class of 1900, with the fragrant sprig of arbor-vitæ, reached me in due time and gave me inexpressible pleasure. It is not a light matter for me to be absent from Chautauqua; but it is, under all the circumstances, necessary and I accept it as God's way.

What an inspiring place is dear old Chautauqua! I have passed many a happy day in its groves and in the enjoyment of its varied ministries.

As you have opportunity express to the members of 1900 my grateful appreciation of their words. I shall keep the note and evergreen bit of cedar among my Chautauqua treasures.

It is a great thing to live in our age.
 Let us *so* live that we may live for ages!

Sincerely yours in the bonds of Chautauqua enthusiasm and resolve,

JOHN H. VINCENT.



HOW TO STUDY THE "RIVALRY" ARTICLES.

Let no reader feel discouraged because the subjects presented in the Rivalry of Nations seem so many and so complex. Keep in mind that what you are to get from this subject is not the history of each country in detail, but a clear idea of the position of each at the present time. Never mind if you do not grasp all the allusions, nor remember all the historical details, but make out for yourself a little chart showing the present situation of each nation and why it is so. It is necessary to bring in a good many details in these preliminary chapters, but as you get further along with the subject you will see how such a general statement of the present problems of each nation helps you to understand how these problems affect the politics of the world as a whole. It would be good practise for the circles to ask four members to sum up Austrian problems and four others Russian problems. Let these eight summaries be brought in unsigned, handed to a leader, and read and discussed before the circle until all have agreed on a tabular form of statement. A copy of this could be jotted down in the members' note-books or on a blank sheet and attached to the membership book. At another meeting, take up England and Turkey, then France and Italy, then Germany and The Balkans.

A PROMISING CORNER OF RURAL NEW ENGLAND.

In these days when we hear so much of the "degeneration of rural New England," it is refreshing to come across a village community which, though small and isolated,



CHURCH AT PLEASANT VALLEY, CONN.

shows every evidence of that intelligent interest in the best things which has always been characteristic of the well-born New Englander. This village, Pleasant Valley, Connecticut, contains twenty-five houses, and the entire population is about one hundred and forty. The Methodist Church, the only one in the village, has a membership of twenty-eight, and a flourishing Chautauqua circle has recently been formed with nineteen members. The church was organized in 1846, but for fifty years had no accommodations for Sunday-school, prayer meetings or social gatherings. In 1898, Walter S. Carter, a New York lawyer who was born in the village, offered to pay half the expense of building a chapel that should contain the necessary equipment. The people responded most generously, and the chapel was finished within a year. Mr. Carter then gave a hundred carefully selected books as a foundation for a village library, and has promised a hundred volumes annually as long as he lives. The pastor of the church, Rev. W. F. Sheldon, in sending the above illustration, writes as follows:

"The picture is really very characteristic, for the village is located chiefly on one side of a single street, close by the bank of the Farmington river. The bridge is near the middle of the settlement and may be carried away by the spring freshets any year, as several predecessors have been. The village is in a narrow valley. The schoolhouse stands opposite the church on the very edge of the river. Except for a plain of fifty acres in the midst of which the church and cemetery are situated, the valley is so narrow that a stone

can be thrown from the street to the foothills of the larger hills common to Litchfield county, which make the valley. The people are nearly all Americans and some of them are Mayflower stock. Within two years new wood-working industries have been started, a soapstone quarry opened, and a chapel added to the rear of the church, in which a circulating library has been placed. The church membership has risen from ten to twenty-eight and with the Chautauqua Circle in good working order a new day has dawned for the village. The gain in church membership was chiefly due to my predecessor, Rev. B. B. Brown. The more material improvements have come under the later régime and Walter S. Carter, of New York, has paid half of the bills and more."



CHAUTAUQUA IN THE ARGENTINE REPUBLIC.

The C. L. S. C. of Rosario, Argentine Republic, rightfully lays claim to being nearer to the south pole than any other Chautauqua circle on the planet, its neighbor at Iquique, Chili, on the west coast of South America, being some distance farther north. As the winter season in the Argentine extends from April to November, the circle is in session in our midsummer. The one hundredth meeting was held in the summer of 1899, and the following account will show what cosmopolitan elements make up this Chautauqua circle. The circle has continued its prosperous career during the past summer and in July ordered its CHAUTAUQUANS for the new year. In sending the report, the secretary writes:

"No doubt you will have already heard of the circle from Bishop Vincent, who was accorded a reception by it at the time of his visit here in 1897. The Rosario



A SPANISH CHURCH IN THE ARGENTINE REPUBLIC.

branch was formed in the year 1896 through the joint efforts of Mrs. Bischoff, the directress of the Government Normal School, and the Rev. Mr. Keely, then American Methodist minister here. The present president is Mr. Van Oppen, the Dutch consul, and among the members, twenty in number, are the consuls of the United States and of Italy, the vicar of the Anglican

Church and the pastor of the Methodist Church. To give you an idea as to what a cosmopolitan society this is, I may say that our members are natives of England, America, Spain, Italy, Holland, and the Argentine Republic, but the language common to all is, of course, English."

The following is the report of the anniversary celebration:

"The one hundredth meeting of the C. L. S. C. of Rosario de Santa Fe was held at the house of Mrs. Bischoff on June 15, 1899, and was made the occasion of a special gathering of members and friends, the hostess having generously undertaken to arrange a special program. With one exception all the town members of the circle were present, together with a number of invited guests, among whom were several old members. Each guest received a very artistic program designed by Mr. Doherty. The musical part of the program was admirably rendered by Mrs. Bertola, Miss Parr and Mr. Ratray, while a short sketch of "Life in an English Country Village" was given by Mr. Donald, and the company were entertained by two diverting recitations by Mrs. Gordon Brown and Mrs. Bischoff. The most important and interesting part of all the evening's proceedings, however, consisted of a much appreciated and very able paper by Mr. Cook, tracing the history of the society and commenting upon some of its prominent features and members, past and present; and in the presentation to Mrs. Cook of an autograph album as a slight recognition of her services to the circle and of the fact that she was the only member who had attended every one of the one hundred meetings. The presentation was made in a most felicitous speech by Mr. Ayers, and was suitably acknowledged by Mrs. Cook. Refreshments and general sociability closed this pleasant anniversary occasion."



A BIOGRAPHICAL STUDY.

"The Rivalry of Nations" for this month dwells at some length upon the fortunes of the Roumanian kingdom, which has seemed to assimilate quite naturally the things which make for genuine progress. Chautauqua readers who are not familiar with the story of the queen of this little monarchy will be glad to make the acquaintance of Elizabeth of Roumania, an ideal nineteenth-century queen and one of the most charming women of modern times. The queen is probably best known by her *nom de plume* of Carmen Sylva, for in the pauses of a busy life she devotes herself to literature. Her "Songs of Toil," many of which have appeared in *The Independent*, and her "Peasant Life in Roumania," published in *The Forum* for June, 1899, show her close sympathy with the lives of the humblest of her people. The queen's own life has been shadowed by repeated sorrows, the loss of father, brother, and of her only child, yet she gives herself unreservedly to the needs of others, and in the fearful days of the Russo-Turkish war became the Florence Nightingale of the

Roumanian soldiers. She has founded many societies in Roumania for the promotion of the arts and the relief of the poor, and is interested in everything relating to the uplifting of the people of her adopted country. A life of the queen, entitled "Elizabeth of Roumania," by Blanche Roosevelt, was published in England some years ago. Briefer accounts will be found in *The Century* for August, 1884, *Littell's Living*



CARMEN SYLVA IN ROUMANIAN DRESS.

Age, for July 28, 1888, and *The Cosmopolitan* for December, 1888. An interesting biographical sketch is also contained in "Songs of Toil," published by F. A. Stokes & Co.



Attention is called to the "Topic of the Hour" bibliography this month upon Town Improvement. As it has been difficult heretofore for clubs to learn what literature has been published upon this subject, the circles can do a real service to any town improvement clubs in their community by sending them a copy of the current CHAUTAUQUAN. A paper on some aspect of this interesting question given before the circle once or twice during the year would help to call attention to the possibilities of town improvement, and so keep Chautauqua students posted upon this important current topic.

A PRISON CHAUTAUQUA CIRCLE.

"Self is the only prison that can ever bind the soul;
Love is the only angel who can bid the gates unroll;
And when he comes to call thee, arise and follow fast;
His way may lie through darkness, but it leads to light
at last."
—Van Dyke.

One of the most steadfast of reading circles is the Pierian C. L. S. C. of Stillwater, Minnesota, whose entire life has been lived within the walls of a state prison; yet this



STATE PRISON, STILLWATER, MINN.

fact does not account for its permanent character, as the organization is a voluntary one and its ten years of usefulness are due entirely to the resolution of the men who have carried it on. The circle was founded in the spring of 1890 through the influence of Miss Lillian M. Gowdy, of Minneapolis. Miss Gowdy was a member of the C. L. S. C. Class of '90, and in honor of her class suggested the name of the circle, "Pierian," selected from the lines of Pope

"Drink deep or taste not the Pierian spring."

That the circle has struggled bravely to live up to its motto for full ten years is shown by the reports of its meetings, which have appeared regularly in *The Prison Mirror*. In this journal have been published also many of the papers written by these Chautauqua students. The circle meets once in two weeks on Sunday afternoon in the chapel, and spends two hours on a program consisting of papers, music and discussions. The meetings this year were kept up throughout the summer months, and the secretary's report says:

"Never before have we had better meetings or deeper interest in the work." Only one diploma has been issued to a graduate of this circle during the ten years, but this is explained by the fact that most of the members are in the prison for a term of less

than four years. A visitor who attended the exercises which were held on the 17th of June, writes as follows:

"A bright, breezy Sunday was the decennial anniversary of the Chautauqua Circle, and it found us on this 'red letter day,' as the chaplain styled it, in the chapel listening to the commemorative exercises of its founding. About thirty members gathered there and of those taking part all but two were in the highest grade of deportment. Those were thoughtful, earnest faces, some of them past middle life, and a few very young, not much more than boys. There was an outside attendance of some twenty invited guests."

The presiding officer, F. R. Rose, conducted the exercises with much skill, and the following program was given:

Opening Chorus.

The Story of the Pierian Circle.

Violin Duet: The Happy Thought.

Paper: Shall the Anglo-Saxon Rule the World?

Solo: The Song that Reached my Heart.

Paper: A Fish Story of the Gulf.

Paper: Are Trusts Beneficial Agencies?

Quartet: Evening.

Paper: The Keystone of American Superstructure.

Piano Solo: Poet and Peasant.

"The Story of the Pierian Circle," written by Mr. J. H. Sullivan, formed an important feature of the decennial exercises. In the News from the Circles on page 322 of this number of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*, we quote a few selections from this admirable paper, the full text of which was published in *The Mirror* for June 28, 1900.



A YEARLY PICTURE COLLECTION.

Every circle ought to have its own picture gallery of famous people with whom it has been associated during the year. It is surprising how many well-known historical characters we should fail to recognize if we met them on the street. There are, of course, exceptions to this rule, as in the case of a college professor whose likeness to Shakespeare became a positive annoyance to him. It culminated in his visit to Stratford-on-Avon, when as he sat writing his name in the visitor's book, some tourists peering through the window exclaimed, "Why, there's Shakespeare himself!" Probably most of us might recognize Washington or Napoleon or Columbus, but how many would know Victor Emmanuel, or Victor Hugo, or Louis Kossuth, if suddenly confronted with his portrait? Yet to look into a man's face is to discover the impression which his personality makes upon us and so to gain some insight into his character; and we cannot afford to miss

this personal acquaintance with the men and women who have left their impress upon the world.

Why would it not be a good plan at each meeting of the circle to appoint a committee of two on portraits? This committee would prepare a list of all possible portraits belonging to the week's reading and find as many of them as possible. At the next meeting they would turn over to a new committee the names of any whose portraits they had not secured, first reading the list aloud so that other members might have them in mind. The new committee would make its own list and also keep in mind the missing portraits on the previous list. By keeping

and a final contest held, the winner receiving the portraits as his reward. He in turn could have the pleasure of contributing them to the public library as his personal gift. It would be well to have suitable cards in two sizes prepared for mounting so that the pictures could be filed to advantage.



THE LION OF LUCERNE.

No work of the great sculptor Thorwaldsen brought him more well-deserved renown than the famous Lion of Lucerne which commemorates the heroism of the Swiss Guards cut down by the mob at the Tuileries in 1792. One of the survivors of the guards,



the names of the missing portraits before the circle at each meeting, all the members would be inspired to help in the search. The sources of supply for such pictures are many. Poole's Index would show the magazines containing portraits, and back numbers could often be secured. Publishers' announcements and portrait catalogues can be secured by sending ten cents to any of the leading houses. The Perry pictures would furnish many, and the circle having once cultivated the habit of looking for pictures would be rewarded by many unexpected "finds." Once a month a portrait contest should be held, using a selected number of pictures. At the end of the year the entire collection should be brought out

General von Altishofen, living in Lucerne, proposed the erection of a memorial to his fallen comrades, and all Switzerland responded eagerly to the call. Through the influence of the Swiss ambassador to Rome, Thorwaldsen was induced to undertake the work, and the original plaster model was finished in 1819. It is said that Thorwaldsen had never seen a living lion, and so was obliged to get his inspiration from antique statues. The original plan was for a bronze monument, but by Thorwaldsen's advice the native rock was selected instead. A great niche thirty-two feet high was hollowed out, and in this the sculptor, Lucas Ahorn, working from the design of Thorwaldsen, carved the colossal lion.

WINTER BIRD STUDIES.

Every Chautauqua reader of last year's course has, we are sure, come to have a new interest in our neighbors of the feathered kingdom, and while the subject does not form a part of our required study this year, we believe the new habits of observation formed by many will lead them to note the signs and seasons as never before. We are very glad, therefore, to bring to their attention the plans of *Bird-Lore* for the coming year, as this very ably edited little magazine deserves a place in every bird lover's home:

"The widespread interest aroused by the bird studies in the Chautauqua course for last year has induced



Bird-Lore to prepare for its readers a definite plan of bird study for the ensuing year, which it hopes will not only be of benefit to the student but add to our knowledge of birds in nature.

"The subject chosen for the year is 'Birds and Seasons,' being, in effect, a study of the more significant phases of bird-life as they are controlled by season. Thus, the relation between food and a bird's range, and the problems of migration, mating, singing, nesting, molting, etc., will all be considered in due time by means of special articles in *Bird-Lore*, references to literature, and suggestions for individual and club work.

"In carrying out this plan much assistance will be given, by *Bird-Lore's* 'Advisory Council,' composed of over fifty prominent ornithologists residing throughout the United States and Canada who have consented to respond to requests for information and advice."

PERPLEXING SEARCH QUESTIONS.

The answers to two search questions given in the November CHAUTAUQUAN have been called into question by a number of circles and individual readers,—a pleasant evidence that Chautauqua students are wide awake. The questions concern the date and the founder of the Holy Roman Empire. As authorities differ somewhat in their statements according to the point of view which they take, we give in the answers to search questions in this number two quotations from Bryce's "Holy Roman Empire," to

which we refer our readers for a full discussion of this many-sided question.



CLASS OF 1903.

The members of the Class of 1903 in council this summer decided to ask all circles and individual members of 1903 to communicate with the class officers at least once a year. "The desire and aim is to keep the members of the class in touch with their officers and each other, to encourage a spirit of fraternity and helpfulness one to another. We wish to make our Quarter-Century Class one of the largest and best that will ever pass the Golden Gate." Isolated members who are cut off from association with other Chautauquans will be heard from with special pleasure. All are invited to write a word of greeting to the First Vice-president, Mrs. J. J. Covert, 4401 Butler St., Pittsburg, Pennsylvania.



THE SOCIAL ATMOSPHERE OF A CIRCLE.

Many small circles have found that to gather about a round table lends an informality to their work which induces conversation and so makes the circle a very live affair. But the plan recently devised by a large circle in Baltimore, mentioned in the reports for this month, shows how the arrangement can be adapted to a very large circle. The importance of this feature of C. L. S. C. work has not always been realized by new circles and many an aspiring band of Chautauquans has been chilled into hopeless discouragement because so few would take part in the meetings. Let the members of such a circle gather around a table, where the most timid can express an opinion without feeling conspicuous, and they will find that a new spirit has been awakened.



HISTORICAL TABLEAUX.

In the circle programs for the week ending December 17 a session of the Berlin Congress is suggested as an effective means for bringing vividly before the circle the deliberations of that august body. There is really more in this suggestion than might appear at first sight, and some of the circles may like to work out the idea in a good deal of detail and devote an evening to it. At least eleven people would be required to represent the different nationalities, and each should be arrayed in appropriate costume. If possible, it might be well to hold a private session of the congress to discuss costumes, each member having first found out what "properties" were available. In default of more distinctive decorations, national flags could be used, made out of cheese-cloth or paper. The dictionary would give the

colors and styles. Pictures showing costumes can usually be found in magazine articles on public officials. A large wall map should be prepared on brown paper and hung on the wall back of the platform where the congress is held. Such a map can be made very readily with the use of crayon, the situation of the countries previous to the congress being shown. The congress upon coming to order should call upon each sovereign represented to express his views. This would give each country a chance in turn to explain its own position and put in a plea for its so-called rights. The map should be referred to constantly, so that the audience may see the bearing of every point brought out. If each character looks up as carefully as possible the relation of his own country to the rest, there will be a good deal of opportunity for humorous by-play. The states which are allowed to attend but not to deliberate should be represented as so unfortunate that their petitions are at last permitted. These having been heard, the "Powers" begin to draw up the treaty. This part of the program will be especially effective if carried out in pantomime, the diplomatic struggles involved being represented in dumb show entirely. The treaty being signed, the chairman should read aloud its provisions, the little states accepting them with what grace they may. The final number might be a verse from the

national song of each nation sung one after another by the assembled powers. The following form of invitation is a suggestion which can doubtless be improved upon:

THE CONGRESS OF BERLIN

requests your presence at its session in the

RADZIWILL PALACE,

(Real place of meeting and date.)

When it will settle the affairs of the Orient.

Earl of Beaconsfield,
Marquis of Salisbury,
Mr. Odo Russell,
For Great Britain.

Prince Gortschakoff,
Count Schonvaloff,
Baron d'Oubril,
For Russia.

Prince Bismarck,
Prince Hohenlohe,
General von Bülow,
For Germany.

Count Andrassy,
Count Karolyi,
Baron Haymerlin,
For Austria.

M. Waddington,
Comte Saint-Vallier,
For France.

Count Corti,
Count Launay,
For Italy.

Caratheodori,
Sadoullah Bey,
Mehemet Ali Pasha,
For Turkey.

Greece, Montenegro, Roumania, Servia,
* interested spectators!

It will be noticed that in the real congress there were nineteen diplomats, but a single representative for each one of the powers would probably answer all the needs of the present session. The Round Table will be happy to publish reports of these congresses, with photographs of the dignitaries.



OUTLINE OF READING AND PROGRAMS.

C. L. S. C. MOTTOES.

"We Study the Word and the Works of God."

"Let us Keep our Heavenly Father in the Midst."

"Never be Discouraged."

C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS.

OPENING DAY—October 1.

BRYANT DAY—November, second Sunday.

MILTON DAY—December 9.

COLLEGE DAY—January, last Thursday.

LANIER DAY—February 3.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.

LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.

SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.

ADDISON DAY—May 1.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.

INAUGURATION DAY—August, first Sunday after first Tuesday.

ST. PAUL'S DAY—August, second Saturday after first Tuesday.

RECOGNITION DAY—August, third Wednesday.



OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING.

NOVEMBER 26—DECEMBER 3—

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: The Rivalry of Nations. Chap. 9. The Eastern Question Reopened.

Required Book: The French Revolution. Part III., Chap. 14.

DECEMBER 3-10—

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: The Rivalry of Nations. Chap. 10. The Eastern Question from 1871 to 1878.

Critical Studies in French Literature: Tartuffe: a Typ-

ical Comedy of Molière.

Required Book: The French Revolution. Chaps. 15 and 16.

DECEMBER 10-17—

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: The Rivalry of Nations. Chap. 11. The Congress of Berlin. The Inner Life of Madame Guyon.

Required Book: The French Revolution. Chaps. 17 and 18.

DECEMBER 17-24—

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: A Reading Journey in the Orient.

Required Book: The French Revolution. Chap. 19.

DECEMBER 24-31—

Vacation Week.

JANUARY 1-8—

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: The Rivalry of Nations. Chap. 12. The Balkan Peninsula since 1878.

Required Books: Grecian History. Chap. 1. The Greek Lands.

Homer to Theocritus. Chap. 1. Introductory.



SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLES.

It will be noticed that the present number of the magazine includes only three chapters of "The Rivalry of Nations," although December contains five weeks. As this series of thirty-six chapters means an average of four each month, the two extra weeks which would have accumulated by April 1 are both taken out in December, so as to lighten the required readings just before the busy holiday season. With the 1st of January the Greek section of the year begins, and the lessons will be assigned in either the history or the literature or in both, so as to study the development of the race as a whole.

A study of the Greek alphabet, with the evolution of its various letters, may be made a most entertaining and profitable exercise. Even in the very smallest towns it is usually possible to find a minister or teacher with some knowledge of Greek who would be delighted to conduct such a study. Almost any good-sized encyclopedia, under "Alphabet," will furnish helpful material. Aside from the pleasure of being able to read the dictionary, every Chautauquan is liable to have opportunities to visit large museums, or in these days of excursions, to take a trip to Greece itself, when even the slightest acquaintance with the classic alphabet will have its advantages. The writer recalls how when in Greece and coming unexpectedly upon a railway station she puzzled for a moment over the odd looking letters *ΕΛΕΥΣΙΣ*, then suddenly realized with delight that she was actually passing through Eleusis, the home of the famous "Mysteries."

NOVEMBER 26-DECEMBER 3—

1. Review of Chap. XIV. of "The French Revolution."
2. Character Study: Danton. (See references in required book.)
3. Book Review: "The Reds of the Midi." Felix Gras.
4. Reading: Selection from "Tale of Two Cities."
5. Brief reports on the several states involved in the Eastern question,—Austria, England, Russia, Turkey, Servia, Greece, Roumania, etc.,—stating geographical situation, race elements and the peculiar reasons why each is interested in the problem. (See Judson's "Europe in the Nineteenth Century.")
6. Reading: "Europe at the Play." William Watson. (*Outlook*, Jan. 16, 1897.) "Hellas Hail." (*Public Opinion*, March 25, 1897.) Also "For Greece and Crete." Swinburne. (*Public Opinion*, March 25, 1897.)
7. Debate: Resolved, That England was justified in allowing Greece to be beaten in 1897. (See American and English magazines from January to July, 1897, which presented both sides very fully.)

DECEMBER 3-10—

1. Roll-call: Items selected from December "Highways and Byways." (See plan suggested in program for November 5-12.)
2. Review of Chapters 15 and 16 by a leader, the chief steps in the Revolution being emphasized.
3. Character Study: Louis XVI.
4. "The Adventures of Francois." The story of the book with selections. Or, "Year One of the Republic." Erckmann Chatrian.
5. Review of Chap. X., "The Rivalry of Nations," with map.
6. Character Study: The present Sultan of Turkey. (See *Review of Reviews*, January, 1896, and June, 1897. THE CHAUTAUQUAN for April, 1896.)
7. Discussion: Resolved, That the Balkan States would be no better off under Russian rule than under that of Turkey. (See "In the Balkans." *Scribner's Magazine*, June, 1896, and Poole's Index for other magazine articles.)

DECEMBER 10-17—

1. Roll-call: Answered by quotations from Madame Guyon.

2. Paper: The fate of Louis XVII. (See "My Scrap-book of the French Revolution," Latimer, and other references in required book.)
3. Victor Hugo's "Ninety-three": The story of the book with selections from it. Or "Robert Tournay," by William Sage.
4. Summary of Chapters 17 and 18 by leader.
5. Character Study: Robespierre.
6. A session of the Congress of Berlin. (See special suggestions in the Round Table.)

DECEMBER 17-24—

1. Roll-call: Answered by Biblical quotations referring to Egypt.
2. Papers: The Israelites in Egypt. (See "The Monuments and the Old Testament," Price. "The Dwellers on the Nile," Budge. "Recent Research in Bible Lands," Hilprecht. "The Higher Criticism and the Monuments," Sayce.) The Great Pyramid. (See article by E. L. Wilson in *Harper's Magazine*, January, 1888; also other references in Travel Club Programs.)
3. Summary with selections from article on "Finding the First Dynasty Kings," *Atlantic Monthly*, October, 1900.
4. Summary of Chap. 19 of "The French Revolution."
5. "The White Terror," Felix Gras: The story of the book with selections from it. Or "Citizen Bonaparte," Erckmann-Chatrian.
6. Portrait review of French characters and of notables met in the "Reading Journey." (See special suggestions in Round Table.)

DECEMBER 24-31—

Vacation.

JANUARY 1-8—

1. Roll-call: Answered by describing the personal appearance of each of the European sovereigns.
2. Papers: Gortschakoff; Stambuloff; Carmen Sylva. (See magazine articles; also paragraph on biographical study in Round Table.)
3. Reading: Selection from the "Emperor of Austria," by Irenaeus Prime-Stevenson, in *The Outlook* for November 3, 1900.
4. Papers: The modern Greek as compared with his classic ancestor. (See *Review of Reviews*, Janu-

ary, 1897; *Harper's Weekly*, May 15, 1897.) The part assigned to Greek in a modern college education. (*Review of Reviews*, January, 1897.) Some things we owe to Greece. (See *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*, September, 1900.)

5. Drill on the Greek alphabet (See paragraph preceding these programs.)



THE TRAVEL CLUB.

Baedeker's handbooks for Upper and Lower Egypt will be found most helpful in carrying out the following programs, and readers are urged to examine all books on Egypt to which they have access, even if they are not specified in connection with a given topic. Reference should also be made to the bibliography in the November *CHAUTAUQUAN*. "The Monuments and the Old Testament," by Price, contains in the back a very carefully classified bibliography, especially valuable in connection with the second week's program.

First Week —

1. Roll-call: Answered by reports on the principal kings of Egypt, with their cartouches given in chronological order. (See Baedeker's "Lower Egypt;" "Egyptian Archaeology," Maspero; also "Notes for the Nile," Rawnsley.)
2. Paper: The Temple of Seti at Abydos. (See "A Thousand Miles up the Nile," also Baedeker's "Upper Egypt.")
3. Book Review: "Uarda," by Georg Ebers.
4. Reading: Selections from "Finding the First Dynasty Kings." (*Atlantic Monthly*, Oct., 1900.)
5. Paper: The Tombs of Beni-Hassan. (See Baedeker's "Upper Egypt.")

Second Week —

1. Roll-call: Answered by Biblical references relating to Egypt. (See Bible Concordance.)
2. Papers: The Rosetta Stone; Abraham in Egypt; Joseph in Egypt; Amenophis or Khu-n-Aten and the Tel-el-Amarna Tablets. (See "The Monuments and the Old Testament," Price; "The Dwellers on the Nile," Budge; "The Higher Criticism and the Monuments," Sayce; "Recent Research in Bible Lands," Hilprecht.)
3. Reading: The Heroic Poem of Pen-ta-ur. (For text see "Pharaohs, Fellahs and Explorers," "Notes for the Nile," and "Dwellers on the Nile;" also for comment, see "The Monuments and the Old Testament," pp. 113-114.) Heliopolis. (See Baedeker. Also "Cities of Egypt," Poole.)
4. Papers: The Israelites in Egypt. (See "Pharaohs, Fellahs and Explorers" and Baedeker under Pithom and Ramses.) Shishak and his invasion of Canaan. (See "The Monuments and the Old Testament.")
5. Reading: Hymn to the Nile. (See "Notes for the Nile.")
6. Reading: Article by Prof. W. M. F. Petrie on "The Victorious Hymn of Menepthah II." (See *Scientific American Supplement*, August 1, 1896.)

Third Week —

1. Roll-call: Review of Nile Journey. Beginning with the point farthest to the south, each locality

studied should be mentioned, with the reasons why it is of interest. (See "Thebes," *Cosmopolitan*, Nov., 1900.)

2. Papers: Memphis; The Step Pyramid of Sakkara; The Serapeum; The Tomb of Ti (See "Monuments of Upper Egypt." "A Thousand Miles up the Nile," Chap. IV.) The Tomb of Ptah hotep. (See Baedeker.)
3. Reading: Precepts of Ptah hotep. (See "Notes for the Nile," and "Pharaohs, Fellahs and Explorers.")
4. Papers: The Great Pyramid—general account. (See Baedeker and bibliography.) Astronomical Measurements of the Great Pyramid. (See "The Great Pyramid," by R. A. Proctor.) Religious Theories. (See books by Smith and Seiss and article by Wilson in bibliography.) The Sphinx. (See Baedeker.)
5. Reading: Selection from Longfellow's "Poems of Places." Africa.

Fourth Week —

1. Roll-call: Reports on the religious festivals of the Mohammedans. (See Baedeker's "Lower Egypt.")
2. Papers: Egypt from 322 B. C. to the Present. (See Baedeker and "Outlines of Ancient Egyptian History," Mariette.) Egypt under Great Britain. (See "What Britain has Done for Egypt," *North American Review*, July, 1898. "Present Day Egypt," Penfield. Also "The Rivalry of Nations," *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*, January, 1901.)
3. Reading: The Present Khedive. (Selection from "Present Day Egypt.")
4. Papers: History of Cairo; The Museum; The Mosques; Tombs of the Khalifs; The University. (See Baedeker; also "Cairo," by Stanley Lane-Poole; "Present Day Egypt," etc.)
5. Reading: Selection from "My Winter on the Nile," Warner; or "From Cairo to the Sudan Frontier," H. D. Traill; or, "From Cornhill to Cairo," Thackeray.
6. Discussion: Christian Missions in Egypt. (See *Missionary Review*, December, 1897; "A World Pilgrimage," J. H. Barrows; Baedeker; and "Cairo," by Stanley Lane-Poole.)



REVIEW QUESTIONS ON "THE FRENCH REVOLUTION."

(C. L. S. C. Required Book.)

CHAPTER XV. THE JACOBIN CONQUEST.

1. What executive body did the Assembly create upon the suspension of the king? 2. Who were the real rulers of France at this time? 3. How was the revolu-

tion regarded in the Vendée? 4. How did the Assembly attempt to control the royalist sympathizers in Paris? 5. What was the result of thus giving the Commune authority to act? 6. What terrible massacres followed? 7. What was the immediate political result?

8. What military success did France gain in the latter part of 1792? 9. How did the new Convention compare with the Legislative Assembly? 10. What different views of the proposed republic were held by Jacobins and Girondists? 11. Why was the Girondin majority unable to control the Convention? 12. What was their relation to the trial and execution of the king? 13. Against what countries was war declared in 1793? 14. What disasters followed? 15. How were the Girondins finally silenced in the Convention?

CHAPTER XVI. THE REIGN OF TERROR AS A POLITICAL EXPERIMENT.

1. What were the immediate effects of the *coup d'état* of June 2, 1793? 2. Why did the Terror seem the only possible way to govern at this time? 3. What became of the new republican constitution? 4. Why was the Committee of Public Safety established? 5. How large was the committee, and what was the character and average age of its members? 6. What responsibilities were given this committee? 7. What were the Revolutionary Tribunals? 8. What was the result of the Terror from October, 1793, to July, 1794?

CHAPTER XVII. THE REPUBLIC UNDER THE TERROR.

1. What three great dangers confronted France in 1793? 2. What classes of individuals were likely to be regarded as "suspects"? 3. Describe the insurrection in the Vendée. 4. In Auvergne, Lyons, Marseilles and Bordeaux. 5. What was the peculiar crime of Toulon? 6. How did the Convention stimulate victory abroad? 7. What was the effect upon the foreign war? 8. What were some of the economic measures tried by the Convention? 9. What changes were made in the calendar? 10. How did the Convention treat religion? 11. Was this cult of Reason generally recognized? 12. What were some of the visionary proposals of the

leaders of the Committee? 13. What really excellent legislation is due to the Convention? 14. What was the lighter side of the Reign of Terror?

CHAPTER XVIII. THE DICTATORSHIP OF ROBESPIERRE.

1. What two sets of leaders were at this time in control of the republic? 2. Describe Robespierre's struggle for supremacy over the Commune. 3. What different views of the future policy of the republic were held by Danton and Robespierre? 4. To what was Danton's downfall finally due? 5. What elements of Robespierre's character are shown in this act? 6. How did Robespierre set about securing his ideal republic? 7. What was the law of the 22nd Prairial? 8. What opposition at once arose? 9. How was the fall of Robespierre accomplished?

CHAPTER XIX. THE RETURN TO CONSTITUTIONAL GOVERNMENT.

1. What change came over the Convention after the fall of Robespierre? 2. What steps were taken to correct abuses? 3. Why did there seem danger of royalist reaction? 4. What was the general feeling of the nation toward a republic? 5. What economic troubles followed the loosening of the reins of government? 6. What terms of peace were made with Prussia and Spain? 7. How did the Jacobins try to control the Convention? 8. How was their power finally crushed? 9. What was the White Terror? 10. Why was the royalist uprising in Brittany and Vendée a failure? 11. What was the form of government provided by the constitution of 1795? 12. How did the Convention make sure of its influence in the new legislature? 13. What was the result of the elections? 14. How did the army save the government? 15. What was the outlook for France under the new constitution?



NOTES ON "THE FRENCH REVOLUTION."

P. 208. "Collot d'Herbois" (co-lo dair-bwah). "Billaud-Varennes" (beel-yo-vah-ren). "Vendée" (vahn-day). "Longwy" (long-vee). "Vardun" (vair-dun).

P. 210. "Tocsin" A signal, especially one of alarm, sounded on a bell. "Hôtel de Ville" (o-tel de-veel).

P. 211. "Abbays" (ab-ba-ee). "Abbé Sicard" (ah-bay se-cahr). "Luxembourg" (looks-AN-boor). "Lamballe" (lahn-bahl).

P. 212. "Louvét" (loo-vay). "Pour les Messieurs." For gentlemen. "Pour les Dames." For ladies.

P. 214. "Savoy" (sah-voi). "Nice" (neece). "Jemmapes" (zha-mahp). "Meuse" (mooz). "Custine" (cus-teen).

P. 219. "Vergniaud" (vairn-yo).

P. 221. "Dumouriez" (du-moo-ryea). "Neerwinden" (nahr-vin-den).

P. 222. "Pride's Purge." In England in December, 1648, the Royalist and Presbyterian members of the Long Parliament were forcibly expelled by troops under Colonel Pride. The members who remained constituted the Rump Parliament.

P. 224. "Barbaroux" (bah-rab-roo).

P. 228. "Referendum." The submission of a proposed law, which has been passed upon by the people's representatives, to a vote of the people for acceptance or rejection.

P. 229. "Carnot" (cahr-no). "Barère" (bah-rayr).

P. 230. "Saint Just" (san-zhoost). "Couthon" (coo-ton). "André" (an-dray).

P. 232. "Philippe Egalité" (aye-gah-lee-tay). A name assumed to court the favor of the revolutionists.

P. 233. "Utopia." An ideally perfect place or condition.

P. 234. "Émigrés" (aye-mee-gray). Refugees.

P. 235. "Punitive." Having power to punish.

P. 236. "En masse." As a body; all together. "Non-juring priests." Priests who refused to take the oath of allegiance.

P. 237. "Kleber" (klay-bear). "Nantes" (nant). "Carrier" (cahr-ryay). "Noyades." Drowning. The victims were bound and dropped into the water from a boat with a movable bottom.

P. 239. "Auvergne" (o-vairn). "d'Artois" (dahr-twah).

P. 240. "Commune-Affranchie" (kom-yoon-af-fron-shee).

P. 243. "Mallet du Pau" (mal-lay du po).

P. 248. "Carmagnole." See note on page 206, "The French Revolution."

P. 250. "Code." The body of French civil law was compiled under direction of Napoleon.

P. 254. "Camille Desmoulins" (cah-meel day-moo-lan).

P. 255. "Hérault de Séchelles" (aye-ro de say-shel).

P. 270. "Agrarian." Pertaining to the tenure of agricultural lands.

P. 273. "Pichegru" (peesah-groo).

P. 274. "Boissy d'Anglas" (bwah-see dahn-gliah). "Faubourg Saint Antoine" (foo-boor san-tan-twahn).

P. 283. "Thibaudeau" (tee-bo-do).

P. 284. "Interregnum." The time during which a throne is vacant; a suspension of executive authority through a change of government.

TOPICS OF THE HOUR.*

WITH CURRENT EVENTS PROGRAMS.

[Note.—In the daily deluge of books and articles the average reader is hopelessly overwhelmed. Complete lists of references to current magazines and recent volumes are of value only to specialists. The busy person who wishes to be reasonably conversant with the leading questions of the day has no time for wide reading, and is likely to be discouraged by an exhaustive "bibliography." THE CHAUTAUQUAN will seek to serve its subscribers by calling attention each month to a list of representative books, and typical articles which deal with the different phases of some one topic of current interest. The Current Events Programs are prepared for the use of clubs, literary societies, women's clubs and organizations desiring direction for current events courses.]

III.—VILLAGE IMPROVEMENT ASSOCIATIONS AND KINDRED TOPICS.

BY JESSIE M. GOOD.

INTRODUCTORY. The first association for the beautifying and sanitation of village and town life was formed nearly fifty years ago in Newton Center, Massachusetts. It is still so active and prosperous that it was able to expend nearly seven hundred dollars for fireworks last Fourth of July. There are many hundred of these associations in the United States, but it is only of late years that the attention of the national government has been called to their work. France asked our government to send a report of the work of the United States village improvement associations to the Exposition for 1900. This was done, and embodied in the report on sociology. In 1899 Miss Dock, the well-known naturalist, was sent by the State Federation of Pennsylvania Women, the Parks Association of Philadelphia, and the state of Pennsylvania as a representative to the horticultural section of the International Congress of Women, held in London. While in England Miss Dock made a special study of village improvement, school gardens, parks, and playgrounds. Her report may doubtless be had by applying to the Secretary of Agriculture, Harrisburg, Pennsylvania.

The impulse given by the World's Fair to all forms of art in America, but especially to the arts of architecture, sculpture, and landscape gardening is scarcely yet understood. Every hamlet in America had its representative at Chicago in 1893, who went home to preach the gospel of beauty. The illustrated magazines have kept the impulse alive, until today sanitation and public beauty are two of the topics most widely discussed. A call for a national convention of beauty clubs in October of this year resulted in the formation of the National League of Improvement Associations, with headquarters at Springfield, Ohio.

It is intended to carry the work into every corner of America, by organizing associations wherever possible, and by bringing into the work all organizations and clubs desiring public health and beauty. It is hoped in a few years to have botany and municipal civics taught in a practical manner in our schools. The list of topics following that on association work comprises some of the lines undertaken by these associations, and others that the National League hopes to bring, in time, into the association work.

This bibliography is not exhaustive, merely suggestive. From a bewildering array of material, only that was chosen which is of modern application, and easy of access in the most ordinary public libraries. In states having the traveling library system, club members should be able to have the entire list sent them. Volume and page have been appended to magazine articles as aids in case it is desired to purchase single numbers.

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1900; of Thomasville, Georgia, May, 1900; of Montclair, New Jersey, August, 1900; "Private Residence Parks of Rochester, New York," *How to Grow Flowers*, March, 1900; "Wider Movement for Public Beauty," *How to Grow Flowers*, August, 1900; "National League of Public Beauty Clubs," *How to Grow Flowers*, September, 1900; "Progress of Improvement Work," *How to Grow Flowers*, October, 1900.

LANDSCAPE GARDENING AND GARDEN HISTORY.

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"Brookside Gardening," *Littell's Living Age*, Vol. CCXIII., p. 895; "Care of the Lawn," *Popular Science Monthly*, Vol. L., p. 568; "Landscape Gardening for Factory Homes," *Review of Reviews*, Vol. XIX., p. 441; "Formal Gardens and Small Parks," *Scribner's*, Vol. XXVII., p. 637; "Egyptian Gardens," *Scientific American Supplement*, Vol. XXXVIII., p. 19729; "Some Famous English Gardens," *Littell's Living Age*, Vol. CLXX., p. 183; "Italian Gardens," *Harper's*, Vol. LXXXVII., pp. 165-393; "A Revo-

* "Party Government in England, France and the United States," appeared in October. "Trusts" appeared in November.

lution in Gardening," *Littell's Living Age*, Vol. CX., p. 367; "Gardens," *Littell's Living Age*, Vol. CXII., p. 352; "A Gossip on Gardens," *Littell's Living Age*, Vol. CCX., p. 54; "Grandmother's Garden," *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*, Vol. XXIII., p. 269; "Florentine Gardens in March," *Littell's Living Age*, Vol. CCXX., p. 689; "In the Wild Garden," *Littell's Living Age*, Vol. CCXXV., p. 137; "Vogue of the Garden Book," *Littell's Living Age*, Vol. CCXXVI., p. 210; "Sixteenth Century Garden," *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*, Vol. XI., p. 576; "Chat About Gardens," *North American Review*, Vol. CL., p. 733; "Hunnewell Garden," *How to Grow Flowers*, Vol. VIII., p. 8; "Miniature Landscape Gardening," *Current Literature*, Vol. XXVIII., p. 258; "Formal Gardens and a New England Example," *Harper's*, Vol. XC., p. 537.

GARDENING FOR PLEASURE.

"In Veronica's Garden," Alfred Austin; "Elisabeth in Her German Garden," "A Solitary Summer," "The Garden's Story," G. H. Ellwanger; "Home and Garden," Gertrude Jekyll; "Gardening by Myself," Anna B. Warner. And that most delightful chapter on Japanese gardens in the second volume of Lafcadio Hearn's "Unfamiliar Japan."
"Content in a Garden," *Atlantic*, Vol. LXXXV., p. 779; "Old New England Flower Gardens," *New England Magazine*, Vol. XXI., p. 422.

SCHOOL GARDENS.

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CHILDREN'S PLAYGROUNDS.

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"Planting Waste Lands," *Quarterly Review*, Vol. XXXVI., p. 558; "Trees in a Hygienic Point of View," *Chambers's Journal*, Vol. XXXIII., p. 219; "Beauty of Trees," *Atlantic*, Vol. XXI., p. 642; "Natural Grouping of Trees," *Atlantic*, Vol. VIII., p. 129; "Development of Tree Study," *Journal of Education*, Vol. XXXVII., p. 73; "Study in Trees," *Scribner's*, Vol. XXVIII., p. 29.

ARCHITECTURE AND SCULPTURE.

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GOOD ROADS.

"Roads and Pavements in France," Alfred R. Rockwell; "Highway Construction," Austin Byrne; "American Highways," N. S. Shaler.
"Roman Highways," *Popular Science*, Vol. LIII., p. 255; "Good Roads Era," *Harper's Weekly*, Vol. XXXIV., p. 822; "Remedy for Bad Roads," *Harper's Weekly*, Vol. XXXIV., p. 894; "National Highway," *Cosmopolitan*, Vol. XXIX., p. 109; "Government Work for Good Roads," *Scientific American Supplement*, Vol. XLIX., p. 209; *Elliot's Magazine*, formerly *L. A. W. Bulletin*, has articles in every number on good roads and road construction.

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"Municipal Government in Continental Europe," and "Municipal Government in Great Britain," Albert Shaw; "Purification of Sewage," Sidney Barwise; "Modern Methods of Sewage Disposal," George E. Waring; "Women, Plumbers, and Doctors," Mrs. H. M. Plunkett.
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of Philadelphia," *Annual American Academy of Political Science*, Vol. XI., p. 127; "St. Paul Public Baths," *Outlook*, Vol. LXVI., p. 126; "Public Baths," *Popular Science*, Vol. LII., p. 857; "School Baths," *Journal of Education*, Vol. XXXVIII., p. 251; *Public Opinion*, Vol. XXII., p. 398; "School Baths and Workmen's Baths in Germany," *Popular Science*, Vol. LII., p. 568; "Public Baths for the Poor," *Cosmopolitan*, Vol. IX., p. 414; "Report on Public Baths and Public Comfort Stations," *Annual American Academy of Political Science*, Vol. IX., p. 465; "Bibliography of Public Baths," *Municipal Affairs*, Vol. I., p. 110; "Rest Rooms for Farmers' Wives," *Outlook*.

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"Traveling Libraries of the University of Chicago," *Public Libraries*, Vol. II., p. 50; "Traveling Libraries in Colorado," *Public Libraries*, Vol. II., p. 54; in Kentucky, *Harper's Bazar*, Vol. XXXI., p. 1112; in Minnesota, *Library Journal*, Vol. XXIII., p. 104; in Nebraska, *Public Libraries*, Vol. II., p. 51; in Ohio, *Library Journal*, Vol. XXIII., p. 105; in Pennsylvania, *Public Libraries*, Vol. II., p. 47; in Wisconsin, *Outlook*, Vol. LVIII., p. 219; *Popular Science*, Vol. LIII., p. 281.

MISCELLANY.

"Colors of Flowers," and "Flash-Lights on Nature," Grant Allen; "Bird Studies with a Camera," F. M. Chapman; "Our Insect Friends and Foes," Belle S. Cragin; "Bird Neighbors," and "Birds That Hunt and are Hunted," Mrs. N. B. Doubleday; "My Studio Neighbors," and "Sharp Eyes," W. H. Gibson; "The Honey-Makers," Margaret W. Morley; "Everyday Butterflies," S. H. Scudder; "Wild Animals I Have Known," Ernest Seton-Thompson; "Folk-lore of Plants," T. F. T. Dyer.

"Architectural Forms in Nature," *Popular Science Monthly*, Vol. LIV., p. 63.

CURRENT EVENTS PROGRAMS.

First Week —

1. Declaration or Reading: (1) "Forest Hymn." William Cullen Bryant. (2) Extracts from "Arcadia and Belgravia," in "Cousin Anthony and I." E. S. Martin.
2. Oration: (1) Utopias. (2) The relation of nature study to our educational system.
3. Paper: (1) Influence of Expositions on public art. (2) Lessons from Europe in street cleaning.
4. Debate: Resolved, That the contract system for town improvements should be abolished.

Second Week —

1. Declaration or Reading: (1) "A Country Pathway." James Whitcomb Riley. (2) Extracts from "Among the Wild Flowers," in "Riverby." John Burroughs.
2. Oration: (1) The village as an exponent of national character. (2) Do vacation schools pay?
3. Paper: (1) Growth of village improvement work in the United States. (2) What flowers can teach us.
4. Debate: Resolved, That free gymnasia and kindred institutions should not be established at municipal expense.

Third Week —

1. Declaration or Reading: (1) "Under the Apple Boughs," in "Under the Trees and Elsewhere."

- Hamilton W. Mabie. (2) Selections from "My Summer in a Garden." Charles Dudley Warner.
2. Oration: (1) Civic conscience. (2) The little red schoolhouse.
3. Paper: (1) Japanese flower culture. (2) School gardening.
4. Debate: (1) Resolved, That the municipality should protect the individual against unwholesome sights, sounds and odors. (2) Resolved, That public baths are of more importance than public parks.

Fourth Week —

1. Declaration or Reading: (1) "I Wandered Lonely." William Wordsworth. (2) "The Beauty of Common Things," in "Arcadian Days." W. H. Downes.
2. Oration: (1) The civic value of municipal art. (2) Good roads in history.
3. Paper: (1) Municipal housekeeping for women. (2) What a library can do for our community.
4. Debate: Resolved, That village improvement associations should "keep out of politics."

Note.—A quiz can be arranged to go with any of these programs by preparing a list of questions on the articles listed in the bibliography above, limiting the answers to one hundred and fifty words.

ANSWERS TO SEARCH QUESTIONS ON "THE RIVALRY OF NATIONS."

NOVEMBER.

1. It began with Charles the Great, who was crowned Emperor of the West in 800. It came down through the Carolingian kings, followed by the Saxon, Franconian, Hohenstaufen and other rulers. The continuous Hapsburg succession began in 1438, closing with Francis II., who abdicated in 1806.—"Century Cyclopaedia."

Strictly speaking, it is from the year 800 A. D., when a king of the Franks was crowned Emperor of the Romans by Pope Leo III., that the beginning of the Holy Roman Empire must be dated.—Bryce's "Holy Roman Empire."

The Holy Roman Empire, taking the name in the sense which it commonly bore in later centuries, as denoting the sovereignty of Germany and Italy vested in a Germanic prince, is the creation of Otto the

Great. Substantially, it is true, as well as technically, it was a prolongation of the empire of Charles; and it rested (as will be shown in the sequel) upon ideas essentially the same as those which brought about the coronation of A. D. 800. But a revival is always more or less a revolution: the one hundred and fifty years that had passed since the death of Charles had brought with them changes which made Otto's position in Germany and Europe less commanding and less autocratic than his predecessor's. With narrower geographical limits, his empire had a less plausible claim to be the heir of Rome's universal dominion; but there were also differences in its inner character and structure sufficient to justify us in considering Otto (as he is usually considered by his countrymen) not a mere successor after an interregnum, but rather a second founder of the imperial throne in the west.—*Ibid.*

2. An Austrian statesman, minister at Dresden, Berlin and Paris successively; chief minister from 1809-48 and leader of the reactionary party in Europe; overthrown by the disturbances of 1848. 3. The first colony was founded on the coast by the Phocæans as early as 564 B. C. After successive changes of dominion, it came into the possession of the Genoese, who held it until 1755, when the Corsicans under General Paoli made themselves in great part independent. The French, to whom the Genoese surrendered the claims which they themselves could not maintain, captured it in 1768. Since that time, with slight intermission, it has been under the dominion of France. 4. In Germany, one of the parliaments of the countries constituting the German empire, also of some of the crown lands of Austro-Hungary, as Moravia and Bohemia. 5. A grant of land made to Pope Stephen II. in 755 by Pepin the Short. It was increased during the middle ages by the will of Matilda of Tuscany, and through various cessions of territory. Much of the territory was annexed to the Italian kingdom in 1860 and the remainder in 1870. 6. According to the census of 1881, in Italy, 63.41 per cent of the population over six years of age could neither read nor write. According to the census of 1880 in the United States, 17 per cent of those of the age of ten or over were unable to write. 7. Because of its position as a naval station in the Baltic. It has one of the finest harbors in Europe and is the terminus of a canal to the North sea, opened in 1895. 8. A famous council held at Trent in Tyrol from December 13, 1545, to Decem-

ber 4, 1563. It condemned the leading doctrines of the Reformation concerning the Bible, original sin and justification. Its decrees were confirmed by Pope Pius IV., January 26, 1564. 9. Louis Kossuth, 1802-1894. In 1848 the Emperor Ferdinand was forced to grant an independent Hungarian ministry, of which Kossuth, as minister of finance, was the virtual head. In the same year the dealings of the Austrian court drove the Hungarians to insurrection. On April 14, 1849, the Diet declared the independence of Hungary, and Kossuth was appointed governor. On August 11, 1849, he resigned his powers into the hands of General Görgey. Afterwards he became an exile in Turkey, visited the United States, and resided later in London and Turin. 10. In the middle ages in England and Germany, a tract of land belonging in common to a community of freemen who divided the cultivated portion or arable *mark* among their individual members, using the common or ordinary *mark* together for pasturage and other general purposes, and dwelling in the village *mark* or central portion or apart on their holdings. It was a customary tenure like the Russian *mir* and was similarly managed and governed. 11. A silver coin of Denmark and other European countries; value fifty-four cents in United States money. 12. Titular Emperor of the French, son of Napoleon I. and Maria Louisa. Born 1811. He was created Duke of Reichstadt in 1818 by his grandfather, Francis I., of Austria, at whose court he resided after his father's overthrow. His health was never robust and he died at Schönbrunn, July 22, 1832.

ANSWERS TO SEARCH QUESTIONS ON "A READING JOURNEY IN THE ORIENT."

NOVEMBER.

1. The native Egyptian Christians. They are descendants of the ancient Egyptians and formerly spoke the Coptic language. After the Council of Chalcedon (A. D. 451), the majority of Egyptian Christians separated from the orthodox church and have ever since had their own succession of patriarchs. Their number is now very small. 2. Bak-en-Khonsu, whose statue is to be seen in the Glyptothek of Munich. 3. The existing temple appears to have been begun by Usertesen I. (about 2700 B. C.), to whose modest foundation extensive additions were made by Thothmes I. and III., Seti I., Rameses II. and III., and Shishak (about 950 B. C.). 4. Rameses II. and III. on the Obelisk of Luxor at Paris. 5. An oval or oblong figure on ancient Egyptian monuments and in papyri, containing groups of characters expressing the names or titles of royal personages and, rarely, of deities. 6. In New York, Cleopatra's Needle from Alexandria; in Paris, the Obelisk of Luxor from Luxor. 7 and 8. Pithom discovered by M. Edouard Naville of Geneva, in 1883. In 1884 he identified the site of Goshen, the ancient capital of the land of Goshen, and there seems to be strong ground for the belief that this is identical with the ancient treasure city of Rameses mentioned

in Exodus. The fact is not, however, fully established. 9. A Corinthian column of beautifully polished red granite at Alexandria, standing on a pedestal or foundation of masonry. An inscription shows that it was erected in 302 A. D. in honor of Diocletian, whose statue stood on the summit. There is no reason for the name. 10. A gem, usually emerald, green feldspar or obsidian, cut in the form of a beetle and engraved on the under face, common among the ancient Egyptians as an amulet. 11. 9,734,000. Egyptians, Nubians, Abyssinians, Levantines, Turks, negroes, Armenians, Jews, and Europeans. The leading religion is Mohammedan, but there are many Copts. 12. The story of Berenice's hair. Berenice was the wife of Ptolemy Euergetes, who shortly after his marriage led his army against the Assyrians. Berenice made a vow to Aphrodite that she would give her a lock of hair if she would restore her husband. He returned safely, and Berenice cut off her golden tresses and placed them in the temple of Aphrodite at Zephyrium. The next day they were gone, and Conon, the mathematician, assured the king and queen that they had been taken to shine among the stars. The original poem of Callimachus has perished, but Catullus, the Roman poet, translated it into Latin and the story has thus been preserved.



NEWS FROM THE CIRCLES.

BEYOND THE MISSISSIPPI.

The state of Washington leads the list of circles this month with some fifty readers, many of whom are new members. The Chautauquans at Seattle and Everett have reorganized, and flourishing new circles are reported from Index and Waitsburg. At Pullman, fourteen members of 1903 and 1904 are enrolled under

the Winona branch of the C. L. S. C. A woman's club of Centerville, California, is making a special study this year of "Some First Steps in Human Progress," and considering also some other Chautauqua course for supplementary reading. Orders for books and magazines are being received in large numbers from the California circles,

who are evidently extending their area of usefulness. New circles are also reporting from widely distant points in the great west. Tempe, Arizona, calls up such classical associations that one is fain to congratulate these Chautauquans that they are to begin with the study of their native country—Greece! This circle, by the way, is due to the efforts of a lone reader of the Class of 1902. Kalispell, Montana, is a field not heretofore reached by Chautauqua, and Boise City, Idaho, which has had a flourishing circle in the past, now reports a reawakening. It was at Boise also that many years ago an enforced sojourner in the state prison sent his name for membership in the C. L. S. C. He was a graduate of a famous Scotch university, and for four long years the Chautauqua books were his cherished companions, recalling old associations and, let us hope, helping him to begin life over again with new courage.

The members of the Class of 1900 at Paola, Kansas, closed their four years' work in June with a social gathering at the home of the secretary. Four members gave a *résumé* of the books for the four years and the story of the circle's life as shown by the minutes was told by the secretary. A guessing contest and refreshments added to the sociability of an occasion which must have been most delightful. It is suggested that these Paola 1900's promptly organize an S. H. G. and try some new plan of work for the coming year. There is undoubtedly material in the town to start a new undergraduate circle, and who so fitted to point the way as these who have traveled the four years' road?

The new C. L. S. C. at Wellsville writes, "Our club anticipates great pleasure in the work for this year." At Coffeyville a large membership of 1904's is anticipated. The Baxter Springs Chautauquans are discussing plans for the new year's work, and the Ninde Circle at Topeka, which has had a long and brilliant history, is well under way with the course.

In Missouri, the C. L. S. C. at Houston has more than doubled its membership by the addition of 1904's. At Kahoka and Springfield new circles are reported. The Bryant of Kansas City is indefatigable in plans and steady in its pursuit of them. A new circle, the Kate Kimball, has been organized in St. Louis, with a membership of ten, including both old and new members. The secretary reports a very successful initial meeting and a spirit of thoroughness among the members.

IOWA AND MINNESOTA.

The Des Moines Circles are steadily adding to their number. Among the old circles which are reorganizing are the Harriet E. Shipley, The Highland Park, Eaton, and Capital Park. A new circle was recently formed in North Des Moines.

The Chautauqua League, also of Des Moines, held a meeting early in August to plan the work of the new year. The league is a monthly gathering to which all Chautauquans are invited, and forms an important center for bringing together members of the various circles. The program is based upon the general course for the year, so that the subjects presented bear upon the work in which its members are especially interested. The October meeting of the league was held in the Y. W. C. A. parlors with an excellent attendance. The retiring president in a graceful farewell address presented the league with a gavel made from wood grown on the grounds of the original Chautauqua. A set of books is to be given by the league to the Y. W. C. A. library. The general plan of the league program is a fifteen-minute address by some well-known speaker, followed by papers and discussions by members. Refreshments and a social half hour close the meeting. That the Vincent Circle of Knoxville is doing genuine good work in the way of sidelights upon the subjects of study is evinced by the following program. It certainly is an excellent plan, where circles can accomplish it, to study thoroughly at home the required reading and then let the circle meeting be devoted to papers and discussions which will throw additional light upon the work.

Roll-call.

Quotations from French historians and authors.

Rivalry of Nations, Chap. III.,	Miss Dickey.
Benjamin Disraeli,	Miss Stentz.
William Gladstone,	Mrs. Ames.
Rivalry of Nations, Chap. IV.,	Miss Elliott.

French Revolution,—

Reign of Louis XVI.,

Mrs. Shivers.

Madame Roland,

Mrs. Everett.

The poet Wordsworth and his connection with the French Revolution,

Miss McClure.

Give illustration of extravagance and

rigorous formality of court life in time of

Louis XVI.,

Mrs. Stentz.

Reading: Selections from "Maids and Matrons of New France,"

Miss Woodruff.

Oliver Cromwell,

Mrs. Johnson.

Monroe Doctrine,

Miss Crookham.

Quiz on "A Reading Journey in the Orient,"

Miss Collins.

Chauncey M. Depew Exercises.

Current events.

One of the strongest circles in Minnesota is that of Winona, which is four years old this year. The circle has a membership of forty-five, the members for convenience meeting in two sections. A Society of the Hall in the Grove is being formed at Blue Earth, with the pleasant result that a number of readers who have never claimed diplomas but have done the full four year's work are to be enrolled as graduates. One of these good Chautauquans began her work in 1885. We congratulate the society upon its bright prospects. The undergraduate circle of the same town has a large membership and will be a steady source of strength to the S. H. G. The Glencoe Chautauquans have reorganized, and new circles have been formed at Ransom and Pipestone.

Reference has been made in the Round Table to the decennial exercises of the Pierian Circle of Stillwater. The following selections are taken from Mr. J. H. Sullivan's paper on "The Story of the Pierian Circle," read on that occasion. After referring to the initial steps taken by Miss Gowdy to arouse interest in the plan, the paper continues:

"In the year 1889 the management of this institution was held by a man who came as near filling the requirements of what a noble, true-hearted man should be as any that I have ever met in my experience with my fellowmen. I refer to Warden J. J. Randall, now dead, but remembered and esteemed by all who ever knew him, be they citizen or ward.

"In April, 1890, two inmates waited upon the warden for permission to organize a circle. The request was favorably received, and in May of that year books and membership certificates were received for twenty-four inmates of this institution. In June, 1890, the circle held its first regular meeting as an organized assembly, at which the election of president, vice-president and secretary was made; also that of critic, which was filled by the Rev. J. H. Albert, who for nine years acted as critic and adviser. Lloyd Porter was unanimously elected president, and Patrick J. Fortune, secretary. Mr. Fortune should receive the best wishes of all Pierians, as it was through his untiring efforts that the circle received a foundation that has so well withstood the criticism and changes of ten years. Assistant Deputy Warden John S. Glennon had official charge of the meetings in the chapel hall from its first organization until a few years ago. It was through his aid that the musical features of the program were first introduced. Among the membership of our circle have been men from all ranks and conditions in life, and papers have been read before this circle that could be placed beside the best thought of our times.

"One of the most notable events in the history of the Pierian Circle was the visit of Bishop John H. Vincent, Chancellor of the Chautauqua Movement. On the 22nd of July, 1890, he visited this institution and gave an address upon the Chautauqua work as followed out by its members all over the civilized world. His words of cheer and kindness inspired new life and hopes among the members of our circle, as

well as encouraged others to join in the effort to 'Look up and lift up;' to 'keep our heavenly Father in our midst,' and 'never be discouraged.' As a mark of our appreciation, the members of the circle presented the bishop with a beautifully embroidered sofa pillow and written address, which has been seen by many Chautauquans at the Assembly at Chautauqua, New York.

"During the ten years of our existence as a circle, there have necessarily been many changes among its membership. Yet the interest is as strong today as it ever was, and under the capable guidance of our present chairman and secretary I hope to see it advance to a still higher standard among the C. L. S. C. circles of this country.

"In closing this brief sketch of the Pierian Circle I would mention some of the special features of our program. Papers that deal with the current events of the day are always found interesting and instructive. For a time the circle had the question box as a part of the program. Then debate was adopted and finally mock congress, which has become a part of the program giving new interest to the circle as it teaches parliamentary practice, and opens a wider field for subjects."

THE CENTRAL STATES.

A late new circle to report from Michigan is that at Nunica which was organized a year ago with members from the Classes of '02 and '03. This year they have secured additional readers. The town is a small one and this is the first attempt at Chautauqua studies which it has made. The Benton Harbor C. L. S. C.'s, always to be relied upon for energy and promptness, have called for a large number of books and magazines. At Detroit a new circle called the Lake Orion Reading Circle is reported. A new circle at Fairchild, Wisconsin, is also noted among the returns from that state. The following report from Harvard, Illinois, gives a glimpse of C. L. S. C. doings in that wide-awake community:

Mrs. C. E. Hunt and Mrs. N. B. Helm pleasantly entertained the past, present and future members of the Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle at an afternoon tea, at their home Wednesday afternoon of last week. About twenty were present. During the afternoon, Mrs. Hunt and Mrs. Helm gave a report of their recent trip to Chautauqua, New York, where they graduated, and received diplomas for their finished work in the four years' course of the Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle. Mrs. Helm as delegate represented the Harvard Circle.

Indiana, which is the home of the Winona Assembly and therefore the field where its energies have been chiefly directed, shows a long list of new circles: Brownsburg sends four new members. At Converse, only two out of a membership of twenty-five are former readers; Flora enrolls seventeen 1904's, Lincoln Park of Indianapolis, nearly twenty, Jamestown eleven, Pittsboro ten, Rockville eight, Rosedale four. Besides these new circles the older organizations

which include many 1902's and 1903's have in many cases added new members. Altogether these older circles representing Warsaw, Wabash, Van Buren, Remington, Pendleton, Mt. Auburn, Monticello, Logansport, Lafayette, Hanover, Glenwood, Goshen, Fort Wayne, Fowler, Elwood, Columbus and Bunker Hill, form a splendid host of readers. Fuller reports from all of these circles will be awaited with great interest, and it is to be hoped that they will feel as much at home in the pages of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* as they did in the *Winona Magazine*.

OHIO.

The Edward Rowland Sill C. L. S. C. of Cuyahoga Falls is one of the most thoroughly organized circles in the state. Its thirty-nine members for this year represent fourteen for the new class, the remainder including the other three undergraduate classes. The Berea and Westerville circles publish their weekly programs in the local papers,—an excellent plan for all Chautauquans to act upon. At East Liverpool the circle begins its second year with bright prospects. The members propose to carry out the four year's plan in full, including, if possible, graduation at Chautauqua. At Findlay, the Chautauquans belong chiefly to the Class of '01 and hold their meetings in the United Presbyterian Church parlors.

A new circle from Cheshire reports nine members with prospects of others. At Thompson the superintendent of schools is arousing much interest in Chautauqua work. Sandusky has a new circle also under the direction of the superintendent of schools, and a promising company of C. L. S. C. readers is beginning work at Zanesville. The older circles are falling into line early and it looks as if scarcely one of last year's had fallen by the way. The Montpelier Chautauquans have a large circle this year. New London and Rocky River, Coshocton, Cincinnati, Sidney, Akron and Lima all report their circles in a flourishing state. Winona circles report from Mansfield and Tiffin, chiefly of 1903's. Several new circles have been formed in Cleveland,—one at the Wade Park Methodist Episcopal Church, one in East Cleveland, and a Neighborhood Circle on Melrose avenue, the last two outgrowths of the new Society of the Hall in the Grove.

PENNSYLVANIA, NEW JERSEY AND NEW YORK.

The Elm Park Circle, of Scranton, has its usual large membership, and reports a prospective year of more than usual interest.

The tasteful letter-head which the Imperial Circle uses for its correspondence announces that the circle meets the first and third Monday of each month at the homes of the members, taken alphabetically. Circles in all parts of the state are signifying their readiness for the new year's work. The Carlyle, of Pittsburgh, the West Pittston, Apollo, Reynoldsville, Coraopolis, and "Normandy," of Smethport, have made an early start. The Bridgeton, N. J., Chautauquans, who are to take up Spanish as one feature of their work for the new year, held their annual banquet early in October, at the home of Mr. John C. Sweeten:

"The rooms were beautifully trimmed with golden rod. Over the tastefully arranged banqueting table hung a greeting to the members of the circle, the letters being in Spanish and reading, 'Welcome Friends, Welcome.' This was in line with the study of Spanish, to be taken up vigorously during the coming year."

The program was upon an oak leaf:

UN CONCIERTO.

Prelude—"Poet and Peasant,"	Suffe.
"Product of Seville,"	Anon.
"Trifles,"	Loville.
"Sweet and Low,"	Tennyson.
"Over the Trellis, the Sweet Peas Grow,"	Phoebe.
"Flee as a Bird,"	M. S. B. Dana.
"Roll, Jordan Roll,"	Slave Hymn.
"Drink of this Cup,"	Longfellow.
"From Greenland's Icy Mountains,"	R. Heber.
Miscellaneous Selections,	
"Won by Waiting,"	Edna Lyall.
"Nadanas Gracias."	

New York City is having a sudden awakening in the matter of circles. The West End Circle of the West End Presbyterian Church, was organized on the 8th of October; it numbers twelve members who are taking up the course in a very thorough-going fashion. Another circle is the Minerva Club, a part of whose members live in the city and the remainder in East Orange. Just how they arrange their meetings does not as yet appear, but their name indicates that they are equal to the situation. The Madison Avenue Presbyterian Church, corner Fifty-third street, reports a large new circle, calling for twenty sets of books. The C. L. S. C. connected with the Metropolitan Tabernacle has reorganized with twenty-three members. This circle has had a fine record, and delegated its president, Mr. John A. Russell, to represent it at Chautauqua this summer, as he was a member of the graduating class. Since his return Mr. Russell has helped to reorganize one of the new city circles.

NEW ENGLAND.

The true Chautauqua spirit is exemplified by the organizer of the new circle at Hancock, Maine, who lives in Portland. She writes: "I am a graduate of the Chautauqua course of study and an enthusiastic admirer of the movement, and now I want others to know of this home study method. I have until now lived in small country places, having been a teacher in eastern Maine, and I can reach many who are desirous of taking up studies in their own homes." A new circle is also reported from Bangor.

Rev. F. P. Reinhold, pastor of Grace Congregational Church, of Holyoke, Massachusetts, has formed a circle among his people and we may expect interesting reports from this well-equipped company. The circles at Gloucester, Everett, and Waltham have reorganized; also the Trinity Circle of Charlestown. In addition to the new circles reported last month are others at Northfield Farms, Hartford and Wilbraham, each with a promising membership. A woman's club in Worcester is at work upon the new Russian Special Course, for which it reports thirteen members. At Hinsdale, New Hampshire, the C. L. S. C. formed sixteen years ago, is full of plans for making its seventeenth year a notable one.

The Roger Williams Circle of Edgewood, Providence, Rhode Island, is exerting a strong educational influence in its community as the report of its past year's work shows. A junior club of young girls reading the course of the Chautauqua Young Folks' Reading Union is also under the friendly guidance of these older Chautauquans. At the first meeting of the year there was a large attendance, Mrs. William Burge presiding. The secretary's report brought out the following interesting facts:

"The Chautauqua Reading circle was formed October 25, 1899. The objects of the circle are to promote interest among the members of the auxiliary and for mutual benefit. It has been the desire of the officers of our circle to promote a class spirit and to have each member appreciate the fact that she is a member of the national class and has fellow classmates in all parts of the globe who are pursuing the same course of reading.

"During the winter of 1899-1900 the Roger Williams Chautauqua circle held nineteen meetings for the study of four American subjects, which were history, literature, science and biology. We have had several interesting speakers during the year, some of whom are Prof. H. L. Koopman, of Brown University, on literature; Mr. Charles Kroll, on socialism, and Mr. George Weston, on birds.

"The class has an enrolled membership at Cleveland, Ohio, of forty-nine, the largest circle outside of assemblies formed during the year for the 1903 only. We

are proud to be pioneers of the work in this community, and we recommend the work to those who are to read with us another year.

"On the 8th of May we met at Roger Williams Park and inspected the Smith collection of birds. June 16 several of the members made a trip to Concord and Lexington, visiting many historical points of interest."

The president then awarded the certificates to all who had completed the prescribed course of reading for the year.

THE SOUTH.

A graduate of the Class of 1900, Mr. James B. Scott, who represented the Sidney Lanier Circle of Baltimore at Chautauqua this summer, now reports the organization of a large circle in the Strawbridge Methodist Episcopal Church of that city. This circle has devised a very effective arrangement for its meetings as the following account shows:

"One of the most pleasant features of a small circle is the fact that it is possible for all the members to meet around a table, which arrangement seems to take all the stiffness out of a gathering. It was thought at first that this feature would have to be abandoned in a large circle, but the difficulty was overcome by making a compound table out of seven small ones, arranged in the conventional U shape of the banquet hall. By this means we provided seats for fifty persons, and yet preserved the informality of a home circle. Everybody was delighted with the novelty of the arrangement and the program was thoroughly enjoyed."

Other new circles recently formed are those at Liberty Grove, organized early in October and steadily adding new members, and at Jarrettsville with a membership of nine. One of the vice-presidents of the Class of 1902, Rev. George N. Luccock, has organized a large circle in his church, the Metropolitan Presbyterian, in Washington. Meetings are held once in two weeks. Dr. Luccock's intelligent zeal in all things relating to Chautauqua work makes it certain that this fine circle will become a permanent element in the literary life of Washington. The Wesley Chapel C. L. S. C. reports reorganization, and another new circle has been heard from, whose name has not yet been announced. In Virginia new circles have been organized in Richmond and at Front Royal. Chautauqua work is rapidly extending itself in North Carolina. Very public spirited are the Chautauquans at Henderson and Goldsboro. Many new readers are reported from Reidsville by the superintendent of schools, and at Charlotte an enthusiastic organizer is at work. She writes: "I have never been a member of the C. L. S. C. I left school very young, and have been a mother for eight years. So, you know, I am beginning school over again."

Talk about Books

The title, "Counsel Upon the Reading of Books," contains a happy promise for him who, at once eager and appalled, scans the lists of new books so cordially offered him by publishers, and remorsefully remembers what numbers of old books—warranted to be good—he has not yet looked into. The "Counsel" is a collection of papers based upon lectures delivered in Philadelphia under the auspices of the American Society for the Extension of University Learning. The stimulus those lectures supplied towards the reading of the

better and the best books is now very properly passed on to a larger public. The paper on History, by H. Morse Stephens, treats that subject from a conviction that critical accuracy is the main thing, regardless of "atmosphere" or literary charm. Miss Repplier speaks with her accustomed sparkling vivacity of the worth of memoirs and biographies for the human interest they disclose. The president of Yale College contributes a paper on Sociology, Economics, and Politics, and the editor of *The Atlantic* one on Poetry. Fiction is discussed by Mr. Brander Matthews, and Essay and Criticism by Mr. Mabie. The paper that was written last and is placed first is by Dr. Henry Van Dyke, of Princeton, who very charmingly "makes remarks" concerning the writers of this volume and certain classes of readers, the "simple," the "intelligent," and the "gentle."

A. E. H.
[Counsel Upon the Reading of Books. By H. Morse Stephens, Agnes Repplier, Arthur T. Hadley, Brander Matthews, Bliss Perry, Hamilton Wright Mabie. 5 x 7½. \$1.50. Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.]

A little volume on "Books and Culture" from the pen of Hamilton Wright Mabie covers in his charming style such topics as Material and Method, The Feeling for Literature, The Culture Element in Fiction, Culture Through Action, and a score or more chapters besides, which have both stimulation and entertainment in them. Perhaps the strongest chapter in the book is on The Teaching of Tragedy.

F. C. B.
[Books and Culture. By Hamilton Wright Mabie. \$1.25. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.]

The "American Anthology" is a golden crown upon Mr. Stedman's special and splendid service to lovers of poetry through a quarter of a century and upon the closing of the first hundred years of American song.

From the beautiful introduction, in itself a notable contribution to literature, and the prelude, a song of the poet-editor's happy faith that our "time goes not out darkling nor of music mute to the next age," through the nearly eight hundred pages of selections and the sixty pages of biographical notes, the volume ministers to literary delight and national pride. The space at command permits only a mention of the plan of a work to the preparation of which Mr. Stedman was manifestly called by his endowments as poet and his

training as critic, and in the possession of which his countrymen are evermore his grateful debtors. Part I, "The Early Years of the Nation," covers the quarter-century ending with the appearance of "Thanatopsis" in 1816. Part II, "First Lyrical Period," with its three subdivisions of about fifteen years each, covers the years from 1816 to 1860. The three divisions of "Second Lyrical Period" end with the hundredth presidential year, 1889. Part IV., "Close of the Century," presents "a liberal aftermath" from the verse produced within the last ten years. We suspect that the authors among us who are so happy as to find their names and some of their characteristic lines in this volume would rather be in the "Anthology" than have a place in the "Hall of Fame."

A. E. H.

[An American Anthology. 1787-1900. Edited by Edmund Clarence Stedman. 5½ x 8½. \$3.00. Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.]

Fitzgerald's "Stories of Famous Songs" is one of the continuously popular publications. The author not only gives a vast amount of trustworthy information regarding songs of all nations, suitable for reference, but his style is thoroughly entertaining. "Home, Sweet Home" is appropriately given first place in the work. In a year of study of international developments, nothing could be more fascinating than to follow this author's observations concerning the expression of the spirit of nations in their songs. The two-volume edition, well bound and illustrated, will be a valuable addition to any library.

F. C. B.
[Stories of Famous Songs. By S. J. Adair Fitzgerald. In 2 volumes. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.]

Mr. Mifflin's "Echoes of Greek Idyls" is happily dedicated to the memory of Theocritus, who in the Alexandrian age of Greek literature wrote in unaffected



A. C. McClurg & Co.

ALEXANDER I.



From "Along French Byways."

The Macmillan Co.

ON A FRENCH MEADOW WAY.

gladness of pastoral life in Sicily. The book should be welcome to those who love the musical line, and would know, though they may not read Greek, how the masters of the lyric poem sang in the far-off golden days of art. Mr. Mifflin has put into sonnet form idyls from Bion and Moschus and selections from the odes of Bacchylides. The beauty of antique thought comes sweetly to the modern ear in these reproductions or paraphrases and is a most welcome gift from those "who fluted long ago," sent through a sympathetic interpreter. A. E. H.

[Echoes of Greek Idyls. By Lloyd Mifflin. 5 x 7½. Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.]

In "Along French Byways" Clifton Johnson takes a leisurely stroll over France from Brittany to Savoy, and from Gascony to Lorraine. Sometimes he touches the beaten routes where tourists most do congregate, but more often he follows the narrow lanes through the remote little villages and the fields where toils the French peasant. This tour is no "railway rush" nor even a bicycle spin, but a leisurely stroll on foot. Mr. Johnson wastes on us no gorgeous rhetoric, but his simple, vivid description has all the charm of a personal letter. We see through his eyes the women washing in

the running streams, the men and women working in the fields, and the village weddings, funerals, and fairs. The "byways" sometimes lead to famous places, Domremy, Chamonix, Barbizon, Lourdes, and the forests of Chantilly and Fontainebleau. An interesting chapter is "A Hunt for a Battlefield," the scene of the battle of Poitiers. His difficulties suggest that the French memory is like the Versailles "battle-gallery," holding only French victories. One wonders how a traveler fares searching for information near the scene of an event famous in American history. The numerous illustrations, excellent reproductions of photographs, add much to the charm of the book.

S. A. W.

[Along French Byways. By Clifton Johnson. \$2.25. New York: The Macmillan Co.]

The first chapter in "Robert Tournay," a story of the French Revolution, shows, as befits the time, a game of tennis in the rose-bordered court of an old château and a personal encounter between a marquis and the son of the intendant of the de Rochefort estates. One of the young men is the betrothed husband of Mademoiselle de Rochefort, the other the social inferior, the dependent, who might, indeed, give his life as a matter of feudal duty, but might not speak his love. Before the first chapter is ended the crowds are gathering for the assault upon the Bastille, and from that time onward, as we well know, the story of the individual life, caught in that tragic torrent, was borne forward with breathless swiftness. Many historic happenings of the time are used as adjuncts to a romance for which the victories of the revolutionary armies, the shadow of the Terror, and the mingled fortunes of aristocrat and plebeian furnish background and setting.

The closing scene follows upon the fall of Robespierre, who is a prominent figure in the story. A. E. H.

[Robert Tournay. A Romance of the French Revolution. By William Sage. 5½ x 8. \$1.50. Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.]

The memoirs of Madame Roland, first published by her friend M. Bosc, were given an English translation as early as 1795. This English edition has, however, become rare, and justifies the issue of the present attractive volume, "Private Memoirs of Madame Roland," which is based upon it. The memoirs end before Madame Roland reaches the most interesting part of her life, her political career after her marriage. Writing in prison, in the months before her execution, she seems to find pleasure in lingering over the quiet happiness of her earlier life. We can gain from the memoirs a clear idea of the character of one who became perhaps the most typical of the Girondins, a thoughtful, idealistic woman, sincerely anxious for the public good, yet often irritatingly conscious of the cleverness and attractiveness of her own personality. A. H.

[Private Memoirs of Madame Roland. Edited with Introduction by Edward Gilpin Johnson. 5 x 8½. \$1.50. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.]



From "Great Battles of the World."

J. B. Lippincott Co.

THE BATTLE OF NEW ORLEANS.

A beautiful edition of "A Sentimental Journey Through France and Italy," by Laurence Sterne, with which literary students will be pleased, bears the imprint of the University Press at Cambridge. A two-color scheme of printing throughout the volume attracts the eye, and the decorations and the tail-pieces add to the artistic appearance of the work. This publication may serve to revive interest in a type of humor with which to compare some of the smart writings of today. F.C.B.

[A Sentimental Journey Through France and Italy. By Laurence Sterne. \$1.50. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.]

In trying to obtain a true idea of Alexander I. of Russia from the memoirs written by Madame de Choiseul-Gouffier we are disappointed. Filled with reverent love for her emperor, she would see no fault in him; uninterrupted and unstinted praise alone occupies the pages of the "Historical Memoirs of Alexander I. and the Court of Russia," and the picture is therefore incomplete and untrustworthy. Moreover, as her relations with the emperor lay purely on the social side and resulted in no great intimacy, she was not in a position to acquire such valuable and interesting information as a near relative or a confidential adviser. She saw him as the court saw him, nearer than the world at large, but, on the whole, with no different result. The book is an interesting picture of the society of the day. We become a little better acquainted with the companionableness, the social grace, the constant courtesy of the emperor; but Alexander was too wise to discuss at length either politics or philosophy with a pretty woman. She does not penetrate his inner life, its hopes and aims, its passions and weaknesses. The author hints in the last pages that Alexander's death was the work of conspirators, a supposition since discredited. The memoirs were published in 1828, but the present volume is the first English translation.

A. H.

[Historical Memoirs of Alexander I. and the Court of Russia. By Madame la Comtesse de Choiseul-Gouffier. Translated from the original French by Mary Berenice Patterson. \$1.50. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.]

"Great Battles of the World," by Stephen Crane, is a new book, illustrated by John Sloan, containing a series of eight papers, all of which have appeared in *Lippincott's Magazine*. This volume will be welcomed by students of contemporary literature, because it presents in pleasing form the latest work done by the talented author of "The Red Badge of Courage."



From "Wonder Stories from Herodotus."—Published by Harper & Brothers.

Those who have examined the chapters in "The Rivalry of Nations," which Mr. Start presents in the present number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN, will find interesting supplementary reading in Mr. Crane's paper on "The Siege of Plevna," which is the third in the collection now put forth. J. M. S.

[Great Battles of the World. By Stephen Crane. \$1.50. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.]

HISTORY AND ROMANCE.

"The Meaning of History," by Frederic Harrison, is a collection of essays designed to interest the public in the study of general history. Mr. Harrison's interest in history is literary and philosophical rather than scientific. He prefers a discussion of the salient features of centuries to the minute investigation of short periods, and his criticisms of the careful scholars of the Oxford school are, for that reason, unfair and misleading. Their results may not be popular and entertaining, but the critical study of historical sources is fundamental, and the only safe foundation for such generalizations as Mr. Harrison's. The essays deal with such subjects as the Thirteenth Century; The City, Ancient, Medieval and Modern; The Rise and Progress of Nations, etc. Mr. Harrison is a good analyst. He is able to grasp the leading characteristics of an age or a nation, and present them clearly and effectively. That the statements are often too sweeping, the lines of demarkation too sharply drawn, that generalizations are at times based on insufficient evidence, these are faults that result almost invariably from compressing such large subjects into so small space. Moreover the real problems of history, the causes underlying change, are practically untouched. The impression left is of an outside intelligence ordering arbitrarily the progress of events. A. H.

[The Meaning of History. By Frederic Harrison. 5 x 8½. \$1.75. New York: The Macmillan Co.]

"Ian Hamilton's March" is the reproduction in book form of letters from South Africa written in April, May and June of 1900 by Winston Spencer Churchill to the London *Morning Post*. It deals chiefly with the march from Bloemfontein to Pretoria of the column commanded by General Ian Hamilton. An excellent map of the region traversed accompanies the story. General Hamilton is Mr. Churchill's hero, and the sketch of his life with its thrilling experiences in India, the Sudan, and South Africa, is graphically drawn. An interesting chapter is the one on the fall of Johannesburg, when the author with a friend crossed the town on bicycles before the Boers had left their position, and made their way safely to Lord Roberts's headquarters beyond the town. Added to Mr. Churchill's story is the journal of Lieutenant Frankland, who was captured November 15, 1899, and carried a prisoner of war to Pretoria, where he remained with more than a hundred other officers until released by the fall of the



From "Ramona."

Little, Brown & Co.

"'EYES OF THE SKY,' EXCLAIMED YSIDRO."

town on June 5, 1900. Their impatience under imprisonment and ignorance of news from the seat of war, their devices for passing away the long hours, and their efforts to escape, all come out vividly in Lieutenant Frankland's daily journal. S. A. W.

[Ian Hamilton's March. By Winston Spencer Churchill. \$1.50. New York: Longmans, Green and Co.]

Among the holiday offerings of standard works, a two-volume illustrated edition of "Ramona" is noteworthy. Susan Coolidge writes an appreciative introduction which carries a full-page portrait of Helen Hunt Jackson. The illustrator is Henry Sandham, who traveled with the author at the time she was accumulating the material for the famous book, and received suggestions regarding sketches from her.

There are twenty-five beautiful, full-page illustrations in color, in the volumes, and twenty-six decorative headings by Mr. Sandham. For presentation, this edition is altogether admirable.

[*Ramona. A Story.* By Helen Hunt Jackson (H. H.) F. C. B.
In two volumes. \$6.00. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.]

If we may trust implicitly to the sprightly confidences of "Huan Mee," the diplomacy of continental Europe is largely a social affair in which good looks and becoming costumes wield the deciding influence. The superior equipment of one pretty woman to another in finesse and intuition wins the key to the Russian cipher at a masquerade, while a combination of feminine daring and of masculine Oriental dress settles, for a time at least, the matter of a secret understanding with the Celestial Kingdom. It would be interesting to know Secretary Hay's opinion of the methods employed in the heroine's "Deal With China." Even if our trust is not implicit, our enjoyment in reading the half-dozen sketches is not thereby impaired.

A. E. H.
[*A Diplomatic Woman.* By Huan Mee. 5 x 7½.
New York and London: Harper & Brothers.]



From "The Weird Orient."

Henry T. Coates & Co.

"THERE SPRUNG, LIKE IRIS FROM THE CLOUDS, A SMILING HEBE."

Nine mystic tales, grouped under the appropriate title "The Weird Orient," are of particular interest to readers of this magazine in connection with the "Reading Journey in the Orient" and the study of the various phases of the ever-recurring Eastern question. The author of this book, while living in Morocco, secured the material for his tales by the somewhat novel method of establishing a casino, where prizes were awarded to the member who should tell the most interesting story, turning around some historic event or based on some popular tradition or legend current in the Land of the Rising Sun. The result is a volume starting to the occidental mind, and fascinating withal. A new version of the legend of the Wandering Jew describes him as the man who fashioned the golden calf for Aaron while Moses was receiving the commandments on the mount. For constructing this oracular image he was cursed with the wandering fever—until the time should come when mankind should give up the worship of gold! The story of the punishment of Sheddad for his aspiration to godship portrays in a wealth of imagery one of those optical illusions which are so characteristic of oriental legendary lore. F. C. B.

[*The Weird Orient. Nine Mystic Tales.* By Henry Iliowizi. 5½ x 7½. \$1.50. Philadelphia: Henry T. Coates & Co.]

"Kelea, the Surf-Rider," by Alexander Stevenson Twombly, is a tale laid in the old heathen days of Hawaii. Mr. Twombly, familiar by residence with the islands and by research with their history and legends, is able to present many vivid pictures of the scenery and ancient customs. The real interest of the romance is in three principal characters, Kelea, a young barbarian woman who is especially skilful in the water-sports of the natives; a signally gentle maiden, Pu' Aloha, "Flower of Love," and the young chieftain Hookama with whom they are both in love. The story moves along amid many adventures in hunting and war, which tend to keep the reader on the alert. Every page bears witness that the author has studied the facts of locality and custom as well as modes of thought and expression. A. B.

[*Kelea, the Surf-Rider.* By Alexander Stevenson Twombly. \$1.50. New York: Fords, Howard & Hulbert.]

The Chevalier de Marc, who is the "Continental Cavalier" of his own story-telling, arrived in America from France in September, 1780, just after the capture of André had revealed the treachery of Arnold. He was in quest of his foster-brother, Edouard, Vicomte le Mans, who, braving the displeasure and grief of the count his father, had secretly left the court of Louis XVI. to join Marquis Lafayette in the colonies. By a good fortune not uncommon in stories the chevalier promptly finds a lady-love upon his arrival, and, after reporting to Marquis Lafayette and General Washington at Tappan, becomes involved in a series of adventures in the south that bring him into personal relations with Marion and Greene, with Cornwallis and Tarleton. The story furnishes a readable review of certain phases of that historic movement in the personal details of which romance-writers are now striving to complete our education, but, truth to say, the chevalier writes in the style of the Anglo-Saxon temperament rather than the Gallic. A. E. H.

[*A Continental Cavalier.* By Kimball Scribner. 5½ x 8. New York: The Abbey Press.]



Charles Scribner & Sons.

FROM "THE AMERICAN SLAVE TRADE,"
BY JOHN R. SPEARS.

One more romance is added to the group that clusters so naturally around the proud and beautiful city of Venice. The author, as a result of study and research, has given to the story in "The Golden Book of Venice" an accurate and interesting historical background; she has painted a vivid picture of the struggle of this powerful city against the temporal power of the pope in the time of Paul V. Marcantonio Giustiniani, a young nobleman, falls in love with Marina of Murano, daughter of a rich glassmaker,—a girl so beautiful that Paul Veronese has sought her out as a model for one of his wonderful Madonnas. After their marriage, notwithstanding their great love, Marcantonio, as a grandee of Venice, is obliged to side with his city in the struggle with Rome; while Marina, a devotee of the church, is forced by her intense religious convictions to side with the pope. The time and place lend themselves peculiarly to romance; and Mrs. Turnbull has in a charming way made her readers feel again the fascination of the grand old palaces and the silent canals, the picturesque of the Venetian ceremonials, and the mingled fire and poetry of the Italian nature. M. E. R.

[The Golden Book of Venice. A Historical Romance of the Sixteenth Century. By Mrs. Lawrence Turnbull. 5 x 7½. \$1.50. New York: The Century Co.]

In a most attractive series of masterpieces of fiction, styled the Luxembourg Illustrated Library, a number of the works of Alexander Dumas have already been published. Three volumes at hand are in covers artistically designed by an adaptation of fleur-de-lis. Each work is complete in a single octavo volume, with excellent illustrations, photogravure frontispieces and title-pages. The volumes are complete translations from the latest

French edition, and it will be of interest to readers who are specializing on French literature to know that such standard works are being published in this popular form.

F. C. B.

[The Forty-five Guardsmen. Marguerite De Valois. La Dame De Monsoreau. By Alexander Dumas. \$1.50 each. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.]

"American Fights and Fighters," by Cyrus Townsend Brady, is a volume of stories of the first five wars of the United States, from the war of the Revolution to the War of 1812. As an addition to the literary works dealing with the early struggles of the nation, too high a value can scarcely be placed upon this latest volume by Mr. Brady. While in no sense a "juvenile" work in the commonly accepted meaning of that term, it may well aid many parents in deciding the difficult problem of reading for boys. In fact, neither man nor boy can read the accurately drawn portrayal of these battles on land and sea, so often fought against overwhelming odds, without being thrilled as the author throws new light upon the men who were "making a way for liberty, blazing the path of freedom with their own bleeding feet—marking the trail as it has ever been marked—by the blood of man—staggering, fainting, pressing on, and the genius of Independence walking by their side." W. S. B.

[American Fights and Fighters. By Cyrus Townsend Brady. With 16 full-page illustrations by Darley, Chappel, and others. \$1.50. New York: McClure, Phillips & Co.]

In his book, "On the Wing of Occasions," made up of five stories, Mr. Harris gives a vivid picture of phases of the Civil war that do not appear in history. He sketches the careers of several noted spies who with exceeding cleverness eluded the utmost vigilance of the officials of both armies, conveying from camp to camp papers on which hung the fate of the nation, and gives a good idea of that elaborate system of secret service which played such an important part in the war. The best of these stories is "The Kidnapping of President



Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

FROM "THE VALOIS ROMANCES" (REDUCED).

Lincoln." In this the reader is not only thrilled with the interest of dangerous adventure but he is also

charmed anew with the character of the great president. The simplicity, unselfishness, generosity, strength and nobility of his character, together with his carelessness of external appearance, his homely wit and his love of a good story are pictured in a most lifelike manner. These stories will certainly add to the fame of one whose negro tales have already made him dear to the hearts of the people. M. E. R.

[On the Wing of Occasions. By Joel Chandler Harris. 5½ x 8. \$1.50. New York: Doubleday, Page & Co.]



From "Old Virginia."

Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

POCAHONTAS.

LETTERS AND ART.

In "Studies and Appreciations" Lewis E. Gates, assistant professor of English in Harvard University, presents essays on the following ten subjects: The Romantic Movement, The Return to Conventional Life, Tennyson's Relation to Common Life, Nature in Tennyson's Poetry, Hawthorne, Edgar Allan Poe, Charlotte Brontë, Three Lyrical Modes, Taine's Influence as a Critic, and Impressionism and Appreciation. In this volume the author again reveals his acquaintance with an enormous amount of literature, his ability to find out what is significant, and his power to communicate the results of his work. Mr. Gates shows rare discernment and fairness as a critic, both in his books and in the lecture room, but he is preëminently stimulating. He is one who attracts serious students by the fulness of his learning, charms them with his epigrammatic and luminous style, and inspires them to go back to the literature itself for renewed searches after truth. Mr. Gates himself has a tremendous capacity for work, and he never cares to address the intellectually lazy. He has no primrose way to knowledge by filling his essays with condensed reviews of the material in hand. For those

who are willing to make earnest efforts he has a fellow feeling. To such he is an extraordinarily suggestive and helpful guide. J. M. S.

[Studies and Appreciations. By Lewis E. Gates. \$1.50. New York: The Macmillan Co.]

Volumes VIII. and IX. in the attractive library edition of Edward Everett Hale's works but confirm the reader's gratitude and admiration for service to the liberal education of the spirit, to the refining of taste and to civic righteousness so faithfully rendered by their author through many years. Volume VIII. is made up of addresses and essays on subjects of education, history, biography, and sociology. Volume IX. consists of the sketches, "Sybaris and Other Homes" and "How They Lived at Hampton," in which visions of a reconstructed social state are set forth in a form to make one heartily wish they might come true and to believe that this most desirable event may yet be possible when human brotherhood is more distinctly recognized. The present edition is issued under the supervision of the author, and will be complete with the appearance of the tenth volume, "Poems, Criticisms, and Literary Essays." A. E. H.

[Addresses and Essays. By Edward Everett Hale. 5 x 8. \$1.50. Sybaris. How They Lived at Hampton. 5 x 8. \$1.50. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.]

The story of Robert Browning's contribution to his own and later times in his high thinking and noble living has been "writ large" by many people and, in truth, lies open before us, done from life, in his own letters. In Mr. Arthur Waugh's biography, which he presents to us as "a miniature, not a panel portrait," we have a wholly admirable instance of a memorable story told in brief, with a faultless emphasis laid on the more and the less essential, and a most gratifying consideration for the value of background and accessories. The plan of the book is similar to that followed in the series that has won a permanent regard among the general reader's literary friendships, the Beacon Biographies. There is a frontispiece portrait, a beautiful title-page, a chronology, and a bibliography. But where the Beacon Biographies are brave in blue, the Westminster glow richly in red. A. E. H.

[Robert Browning. By Arthur Waugh. The Westminster Biographies. 3½ x 5½. .75. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.]

Miss Guiney's line differs so greatly in quality and range of tone from most of the singing that reaches us amid the myriad sounds of the hour that it detaches itself and lingers apart on the ear, sometimes with the effect of an insistent questioning, sometimes like an echo of music we once heard and greatly desire to hear again. A classic gravity broods over many of her pages, while others breathe the rapture of a spirit caught up into heavenly places by the fervor of its devotion. The present volume is named for her poetic version of the story, drawn from the Acta Sanctorum, of the young Christian maiden Theodora, who at Alexandria in the year of our Lord 304 was rescued from shame by the youth Didymus, a Roman soldier, and drew him through the bond of human love to share her faith. Miss Guiney's impassioned lines tell us how they went with gladness by the triumphal way of martyrdom from the earthly to the eternal love. The shorter

poems, twenty-seven in number, sing in varied measure of themes drawn from nature, from the heart's experience and the soul's aspiration. Many musical passages appeal strongly against the inexorable limitations of space on quotation, but mention may at least be made of "Romans in Dorset," "Virgo Gloriosa," "Mater Amantissima," "Arbicide," "The Recruit," as fine examples of the characteristic qualities of their author's thought and expression.

[The Martyr's Idyl. By Louise Imogen Guiney. Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.]

Italian art of the elder day has indeed an imperial and a fadeless summer, the golden glow of which rests in radiance upon men's spirits everywhere, but it is well to come into knowledge and enjoyment of the truth, as we may through the sumptuous volume, "History of Modern Italian Art"—the second edition of which is now ready with an extensive supplement to the text and additional illustrations—that the Italy of our modern time is also a fostering mother to elect natures whose mission it is to deliver Beauty's message to the world through form and color. This volume discusses in fifteen chapters the personality and the works of sculptors and painters belonging to the present century in southern, central and northern Italy. Two chapters are devoted to the architects of the same period. The material for this work of seven hundred pages has been obtained chiefly from face-to-face conversations with contemporaneous artists and from manuscripts furnished by the families, friends, or descendants of those whose work and life are finished, so that the information it offers is exclusive and invaluable. The author's literary style is worthy, by its beauty and dignity, of the subject which he has at heart. The illustrations, about forty in number, form a veritable art collection. Reproductions of such works as Maccari's fresco "Cicero and Cataline," Morelli's "Madonna of the Golden Stair" and "The Marys on the Way to Calvary," a "Sleeping Shepherdess," by Michetti, and "Sheep" by Palizzi, indicate the rare quality of the selection made in the volume. A. E. H.

[History of Modern Italian Art. By Ashton Rollins Willard. 5½ x 9½. London, New York and Bombay: Longmans, Green & Co.]

"The Life of Christ as Represented in Art," by Canon Farrar, has been reprinted by the Macmillan Company and now appears in a very attractive form. The book contains an adequate number of excellent and appropriate illustrations. In this volume the author does not intrude upon the functions of the art critic, but rather "illustrates thoughts about religion, and especially about Jesus Christ, of which art has eternized the ever varying phases." The book is a compilation of much useful historical material and valuable observa-



From "History of Modern Italian Art."

Longmans, Green & Co.

ST. CECILIA.

tions; and is worth having for careful study or for occasional reference.

J. M. S.

[The Life of Christ as Represented in Art. By F. W. Farrar. \$3.50. New York: The Macmillan Co.]

A new set of Christy pastels will be welcomed by the public which has accepted Mr. Christy with enthusiasm. Almost everybody knows by this time the types of the "Men of the Army and Navy" if they do not know as well the series depicting the "Favorite Characters of the Romantic Drama." In "The American Girl" Mr. Christy has presented these types drawn in colors: The Golf Girl, The Society Girl, At the Dance, The Morning Ride, The Afternoon Tea, and At the Opera. Since the artist has been especially successful heretofore in por-

traying refined and beautiful women, this new series of pastels will constitute one of the art features of the winter season. The edition will be ready before the holidays.

F. C. B.

[The American Girl. By H. C. Christy. Portfolio. \$4.00. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.]

NOVELS AND SHORT STORIES.

A pocket edition of "David Copperfield," which weighs but nine ounces, is but five-eighths of an inch thick, and yet is printed in such type that the pages are a delight to the eye, is certainly a novel and acceptable innovation in book-making. The feat of publishing a book of 920 pages in such a form is accomplished by the use of India paper, and the publication of a series of standard novels in this style will meet the wants of hosts of readers.

Eight of Dickens's works and seven of Thackeray's are now ready, out of the complete series styled "The

New Century Library." A series of Walter Scott's complete novels, in the same form, will also be published. These volumes are bound in cloth, limp leather and leather boards, for pocket and library purposes. They will delight and surprise the purchaser. F. C. B. [David Copperfield. Library Edition. \$1.50. New York: Thomas Nelson & Sons.]

"Sophia," the latest of Stanley J. Weyman's stories, easily ranks among his best. Sophia is an impulsive, lovable girl who runs away from stern guardians to elope with a worthless Irishman, with whom she fancies herself in love. She finds out his true character in time, and in escaping from him runs across a nobleman who had previously asked her hand in marriage. In order to save herself from the disgrace of her escapade she marries him with the proviso that they be nothing more than friends, though married. His nobility of character and the love she finally gives him, make it a charming love story. The book is a fascinating one, and holds the attention of the reader from start to finish. S. D. N.

[Sophia. By Stanley J. Weyman. New York: Longmans, Green & Co.]

"The Eagle's Heart" is the tale of an impossible son of a still more impossible father. The son of a clergyman, with a furious temper inherited from his father, goes west after sundry wild escapades at home. He becomes known as "Black Mose," and there follow wonderful deeds with lariat and revolver, encounters between cattlemen and sheep herders, "broncho-busting" contests and "cattle round-ups," interspersed with rhetorical English concerning clouds and mountains. The author has a great admiration for "the young eagle," his hero, and makes every woman with whom he comes into contact fall desperately in love with him. This handsome hero with "the eagle's heart" and "sinewy as a panther" has "the leopard's lithe grace," "the lion's gravity," and the "melancholy of the tiger in his eye," "puts out his hand with the gesture of a leopard," but at last, becoming somewhat tamed, "his eyes are pathetic and wistful as those of a gentle animal," — species not named. It might seem that some women would be more frightened than attracted. But there is a pale girl with a wonderful voice unforgotten in the east, who is not repelled even by the murderous rages of her wild lover, and the rest of the story may be guessed. S. A. W.

[The Eagle's Heart. By Hamlin Garland. \$1.50. New York: D. Appleton & Co.]



From "Wanted: A Matchmaker."

Dodd, Mead & Co.

Within two years three books have appeared from the pen of Mr. Charles W. Chesnutt; the first, a volume of sketches in which folk-lore fancies of an eastern people play weirdly against the somber background of bondage in a western land; the second, a collection of short stories in which certain social and moral interests of human nature are treated in relation to a more or less clearly drawn color-line; the third, a novel which shows how human spirits may strive and human hearts may suffer while a great national problem waits for solution. Mr. Chesnutt has gone from strength to strength in these three books, so that we may with confidence expect still more forceful presentation of characters and conditions belonging to his chosen field. The commendation called forth by the earlier volumes will be bestowed with even stronger emphasis on "The House Behind the Cedars." In the effective portrayal of both main and minor characters and in the management of the apparently slight, really dramatic, incidents by which the tragedy of the story is worked out, mastery of the story-teller's art is clearly shown. The interest of the story centers about John Warwick, the man who has mastered fate, and his sister Rena, the woman who is conquered by fate. Both were born free, apparently white, but under hopeless ban if it is indeed true that a slight admixture of African blood blends with the Caucasian in their veins. The white lover, George Tryon, is the well-born, active young man, sure of his honor in love as in business until his inherited standards and ideals are put to the supreme test. Mr. Chesnutt neither moralizes nor interrogates, but his story speaks to the deeper feelings of his readers. A. E. H.

[The House Behind the Cedars. By Charles W. Chesnutt. 5x8. \$1.50. Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.]

"The Real David Harum," by Arthur T. Vance, is an account of the "wise ways and droll sayings" of "Dave" Hannum of Homer, New York. The volume, illustrated with eleven full-page half-tones, will be attractive to any who may care to know more about the original of the hero of the late Mr. Westcott's popular book. J. M. S.

[The Real David Harum. By Arthur T. Vance. .75. New York: The Baker & Taylor Co.]

CHILDREN'S BOOKS.

Appreciating the fact that Christmas time is peculiarly children's time, the makers of books begin early to

plan for the entertainment of young folks as the holidays approach. The desire to please all, from the little tots to those who are nearing a certain degree of maturity, affords an explanation for the preparation of such a variety of volumes, from collections of non-sensical rhymes to stories of adventure. The elaborate binding and richness of illustration which characterize many of these books lead one to wonder whether babes are not becoming bibliomaniacs.

"Baby Goose," a collection of rhymes by Fannie E. Ostrander, with illustrations by R. Y. Hircher, published by Laird & Lee, is an apt example. The same company is responsible for a gay and bright fairy story, well calculated to delight all those interested in fairy lore. This book is called "A Fairy Night's Dream, or The Horn of Oberon." It is by Katharine Elise Chapman and is profusely illustrated by Gwynne Price. After fairy tales become a bore, children crave stories about children. "Boy Donald," by Penn Shirley, and "Jimmy, Lucy and All," by Sophie May, published by Lee & Shepard, are just suited to supply that need.

"The Little Dreamer's Adventure," by Frank S. Child, "Two Little Street Singers," by N. A. M. Roe, "Randy's Summer," by Amy Brooks, and "Almost as Good as a Boy," by Amanda M. Douglas, published by Lee & Shepard, are stories realistic enough to prove very entertaining to girls and boys of "the matter-of-fact" age. "A Little American Girl in India," by Harriet A. Cheever, published by Little, Brown & Company, takes the reader abroad into strange conditions and surroundings.

For those a little older, stories with a spice of adventure are apt to claim the attention. Lee & Shepard present in this line, "House Boat on the St. Lawrence," by Everett T. Tomlinson; "True to Himself," by Edward Stratemyer; "Aguinaldo's Hostage," by H. I. Hancock; and "Rival Boy Sportsmen," by W. Gordon Parker.

"Gold Seeking on the Dalton Trail," by Arthur R. Thompson, published by Little, Brown & Company, aside from being an entertaining story of adventure, contains a good deal of useful information about the Klondike. A. B.

[Baby Goose. By Fannie Ostrander. Chicago: Laird & Lee. A Fairy Night's Dream. By Katharine Elise Chapman. Chicago: Laird & Lee. Boy Donald. By Penn Shirley. .75. Boston: Lee & Shepard. Jimmy, Lucy and All. By Sophie May. .75. Boston: Lee & Shepard. The Little Dreamer's



Hans Andersen's Fairy Tales.

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"JUST LOOK WHAT I HAVE FOUND."

Adventure. By Frank S. Child. \$1.25. Boston: Lee & Shepard. Two Little Street Singers. By N. A. M. Roe. \$1.00. Boston: Lee & Shepard. Randy's Summer. By Amy Brooks. \$1.00. Boston: Lee & Shepard. Almost as Good as a Boy. By Amanda Douglas. \$1.25. Boston: Lee & Shepard. A Little American Girl in India. By Harriet A. Cheever. \$1.50. Boston: Little, Brown & Company. House Boat on the St. Lawrence. By Everett T. Tomlinson. \$1.50. Lee & Shepard. True to Himself. By Edward Stratemeyer. Boston: Lee & Shepard. Aguinardo's Hostage. By H. I. Hancock. \$1.25. Boston: Lee & Shepard. Rival Boy Sportsmen. By Gordon Parker. \$1.25. Boston: Lee & Shepard. Gold Seeking on the Dalton Trail. By Arthur R. Thompson. \$1.50. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.]

To give to the world a new book of fairy tales—even though among the tales are several that are old and familiar—is to confer a great boon upon little people, who in this day of many books and many stories still love best those that tell of princes, magicians, giants, and dragons. In this book are recorded all the wonderful stories that were told in the dancing firelight by the Lord High Scrivener, the ambassadors from far countries, the pages, trumpeters and jesters who were present at the wedding feast of Herla, King of the Britons, and Bloodwen, daughter of the King of France. Among these stories are some that are old and familiar, like "Cinderella," the "Elves," and "The Argonauts;" but in the others the birds and beasts, the dryads, gnomes, pigmies, trolls and the whole subterranean empire of little people disport themselves in new antics, work new enchantments, and startle with new wonders. The imaginative and artistic illustrations which, shrinking from the portrayal of no marvels, decorate almost every page, add much to the charm and beauty of the work. To all proper minded little people who dwell in the regions of imagination and fancy, and to some big ones who retire at times to these airy realms for diversion, this book will be most welcome.

M. E. R.

[The True Annals of Fairy-Land. Edited by William Canton. By Charles Robinson. \$2.00. New York: The Macmillan Company.]

Mabel Osgood Wright has endeared herself to many children through her books about animals. Now she comes with a thrilling tale called "The Dream Fox Story Book." The boy who has been naughty and goes to sleep without the good-night kiss from mother has many exciting adventures with the dream fox. The illustrations by Oliver Herford are certainly original in style and conception and add much to the attractiveness of the book.

S. D. N.

[The Dream Fox Story Book. By Mabel Osgood Wright. \$1.50. New York: The Macmillan Company.]

Andrew Lang has edited "The Grey Fairy Book," and in it the children have a treat. The tales are derived from many countries, Lithuania, various parts of Africa, Germany, France, Greece and other regions



From "The Real David Hannum."

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AN EXCELLENT PHOTOGRAPH OF DAVID HANNUM, OF ABOUT THE PERIOD OF THE NOVEL.

of the world. They bear a great similarity. Most of them have beautiful princesses imprisoned in castles by terrible ogres, and they are rescued by lovers who kill the ogres, and do many other wonderful things. There is a revised version of Cinderella from the French; of Jack and the Bean Stalk from the German. So that we conclude that the tastes of children are much alike, be they born in Africa or America. The illustrations, by J. H. Ford, are strikingly artistic.

S. D. N.

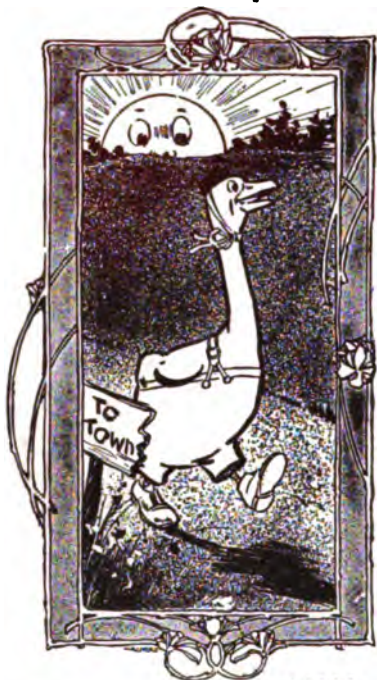
[The Grey Fairy Book. Edited by Andrew Lang. New York: Longmans, Green & Co.]

"The St. Nicholas Book of Plays and Operettas" is an attractive collection of the most popular plays in prose and verse which have appeared in the *St. Nicholas Magazine*. Many of these have been printed in pamphlets, and the continued demand for them suggested that they be printed in book form.

A. B.

[The St. Nicholas Book of Plays and Operettas. \$1.00. New York: The Century Company.]

"Pretty Polly Perkins," by Gabrielle E. Jackson, is a wholesome and genuine story for girls. The heroine, who is a daughter of New England, comes into contact with a delightful family from New York. The story clusters around these summer acquaintances and the



Laird & Lee.

FROM "BABY GOOSE; HIS ADVENTURES."

experiences which grow out of them. The whole makes a delightful story which is daintily bound and abundantly illustrated with pictures by C. M. Relyea. A. B.

[Pretty Polly Perkins. By Gabrielle E. Jackson. \$1.50. New York: The Century Company.]

The history of common superstitions of today forms a most interesting study by S. A. Drake. The volume deals entirely with familiar beliefs, and one is astonished at the great variety collected. The book begins with "A Reckoning with Time," in which the author states his reason for making such a book and clearly defines his attitude toward various beliefs. He makes a strong plea against many stories which are told to children when he says: "Is not the plea that these are mere harmless nothings, by far the most short-sighted one that could be advanced? The critical thought to be impressed here is that about the first teaching little children receive is a lesson in superstition and that, too, at a time when their young minds are most susceptible to lasting impressions." A. B.

[Myths and Fables of Today. By S. A. Drake. \$1.50. Boston: Lee & Shepard.]

The series of little classics published by Heath & Company ought to command the attention of all teachers looking for supplementary reading. In this series the best reading for children has been carefully chosen and ably edited by prominent people.

A partial list includes: The Wonderful Chair and the Stories it Told. Parts I. and II. Edited by M. V. O'Shea. Illustrated. Goody Two Shoes. Attributed to Oliver Goldsmith. Edited by Charles Welsh. Illustrations after the Original Edition of 1765. The Comedy of The Tempest. Abridged and edited by Sarah Willard Hiestand. With illustrations after drawings

by F. A. M. Retzsch. Jackanapes. By Mrs. Ewing. Edited by Professor W. P. Trent. Illustrated. Chapters on Animals. By Philip Gilbert Hamerton. Edited by W. P. Trent. Illustrated. A Midsummer-Night's Dream. Abridged and edited by Sarah Willard Hiestand. With illustrations after drawings by R. Smirke. The King of the Golden River. By John Ruskin. Edited by Professor M. V. O'Shea. Illustrated. Gulliver's Travels. Parts I. and II. Edited by Thomas M. Balliet. Illustrated. The Story of a Short Life. By Mrs. Ewing. Edited by Thomas M. Balliet. Illustrated. The Adventures of Ulysses. By Charles Lamb. Edited by Professor W. P. Trent. Illustrated. Eyes and No Eyes and Other Stories. By Dr. Aiken, Mrs. Barbauld, Mrs. Marcet and Jane Taylor. Edited by M. V. O'Shea. Illustrated. Six Nursery Classics: The House that Jack Built; Mother Hubbard and Her Dog; Courtship, etc., of Cock Robin; Dame Wiggins of Lee; The Old Woman and Her Pig; The Three Bears. Edited by M. V. O'Shea. Illustrated. F. C. B.

[Home and School Classics. .10 and .15. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.]

"The Century Book of the American Colonies," by Elbridge S. Brooks, aside from entertaining children, should prove abundantly suggestive to teachers, as one of the best of means to obtain interest in a subject which is too often found dull. In this book a party of bright girls and boys, under the direction of their uncle, start on a pilgrimage through the American colonies, beginning with St. Augustine and taking each one in the order of its settlement. The points of most historic interest at each place are visited and the facts come out naturally in response to the questions awakened. The book ought to prove most interesting. A. B.

[The Century Book of the American Colonies. By Elbridge S. Brooks. \$1.50. New York: The Century Company.]

F. Oppen dedicates a volume of his pictures and verses "To one of the funniest of the Folks in Funnyville, the parent who goes to the circus just to please the children and who buys picture books because the children like them so much." Both the pictures and the verses in the volume are the work of Mr. Oppen, whose style of illustration is so familiar to readers of the comic journals. Among the special features are



R. H. Russell.

FROM "A HAND-BOOK OF GOLF FOR BEARS."

An Apple-Tree Alphabet and The Venture of a Prehistoric Man. F. C. B.

[The Folks in Funnyville. By F. Oppen. 9x12. \$1.50. New York: R. H. Russell.]

Hayden Carruth has written a golf alphabet and Frank Ver Beck has illustrated it in "A Hand-Book of

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Professor Royce treats "the permanence of the Individual Man," it is gratifying to know that the lecture had to be repeated on account of the large numbers turned away from the hall on the night of its first delivery. Along the line of his investigation the

brief but sufficient to give a summarized view of the whole Protestant mission work. The long and rich experience of Dr. Stephen L. Baldwin in foreign mission work gives to the book the weight of the best authority on that subject. The style is charmingly attractive.

The book ought to be in every Christian home, and those opposed to foreign missions should read it. J. M. B.

[Foreign Missions of the Protestant Churches. \$1.00. New York: Eaton & Mains.]

MISCELLANEOUS.

Professor Wilkinson's "Foreign Classics in English" have been constructed for the purpose of acquainting people with the substance of what the classics in foreign languages contribute to the literature of the world. Those who have never had the advantage of training to enable them to read the language of the original, are given a survey of literatures which even those who study in college courses sometimes miss.

Professor Wilkinson's works have constituted a unique contribution to popular education. Direct translations of typical passages, accompanied by notes, maps, illustrations and other helps, impart knowledge of what otherwise would be closed books to many persons. The complete series of six volumes includes the preparatory and college courses in Greek and Latin, and courses in French and German. F. C. B.

[Wilkinson's Foreign Classics in English. By William Cleaver Wilkinson, Professor of Poetry and Criticism, University of Chicago. Six volumes. 12mo.



Laird & Lee.

FRONTISPIECE FROM "YOU AND YOUR DOCTOR," BY WILLIAM B. DOHERTY, M. D.

immortality of man becomes a mere incident in the deeper discussion of what it is to be an individual. Still, there is a persuasive charm in following, though it be as in a dream, the train of thought—or, at least, the sentences which without doubt mean much more to the lecturer than to his most respectful listener—by which we come to the learned author's summing up the six "plain considerations" which support his argument for human immortality. A. E. H.

[Ingersoll Lectures on Immortality. Each 4½ x 7½. \$1.00. Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin & Company. Immortality and the New Theodicy. By George A. Gordon, D. D. Human Immortality. Two Supposed Objections to the Doctrine. By Professor William James. Dionysos and Immortality: The Greek Faith in Immortality as Affected by the Rise of Individualism. By President Benjamin Ide Wheeler. The Conception of Immortality. By Josiah Royce.]

Baldwin's "Foreign Missions of the Protestant Churches," is at once a complete and compact review of the whole subject of foreign missions. It sets forth in clear light the underlying principles of the missionary work of Protestantism, carefully discriminating true from false conceptions of missionary work. It considers well the call and qualifications of missionaries. It gives a homeside-view of methods and management used by the churches in mission fields, together with an outline summary of the work of the numerous societies engaged in the work. A presentation is made of the different classes of fields occupied and of the general progress in them. Statistics are

cloth. Illustrated. Price, \$1.00 each. The set \$6.00. New York: Funk & Wagnalls Co.]

There are plenty of books of familiar quotations, but the first attempt to make a readable volume out of them, by such a classification and arrangement as to



The Macmillan Company.

FROM "ELIZABETH AND HER GERMAN GARDEN."



afford something like a real study of the best proverbs, is to be credited to George Howard Opdyke. The book is a distinct success. Within 275 pages the author has given a new view of a "neglected field of literature" which will repay the reader over and above the use which he may have for quotation in conversation or public speaking. The proverbs have been selected from ancient and modern American and foreign sources. It will be interesting to the friends of the author to know that about three hundred of the unsigned proverbs are his own. Here are a few of them: "Books, like salt fish, should be a good while soaking before served," "The art of reading is the art of skipping," "Self-conceit is a poor seat to sit on." F. C. B.

[The World's Best Proverbs and Short Quotations. By George Howard Opdyke. \$1.50. Chicago: Laird & Lee.]

The handsome volume, "Our Presidents and How We Make Them," by Colonel A. K. McClure of the Philadelphia Times, is a timely offering in the year of the quadrennial contest in which the "uncrowned kings" of the republic divide into hostile camps and vigorously carry on a paper war for several weeks. The history of our national development is indicated in large outline in this book by an account of the twenty-seven presidential elections that have taken place since the adoption of the constitution, a description of the organization of the various political parties, the text of the platforms, and tables of the popular and electoral vote, together with much interesting and historically valuable personal reminiscence. Colonel McClure has unusual qualifications for the preparation of such a work, as the study of politics has been his favorite pursuit since 1848, when, not yet of age but already an editor, he

witnessed the nomination of General Taylor. Since that time he has attended the national conventions of both parties, so that he can speak from a lifelong interest and a large fund of personal knowledge. Portraits of our twenty-four presidents accompany the text.

A. E. H.

[Our Presidents and How We Make Them. By A. K. McClure, LL. D. 5½ x 8½. New York and London: Harper & Brothers.]

Andrew Carnegie is an individualist and his faith is born of his own works. He has, moreover, a reason for the faith that is in him, born of his own achievements. But while he is an individualist, with no sympathy for socialistic theories, he has a new appreciation of the obligations of riches as set forth in his "Gospel of Wealth." To him, the rich man who dies without having justified his riches by generous donations for public purposes is an offender to his trust. His is a new sort of *noblesse oblige*. He believes in work and the gospel of work for one's children as well. Wealth is justified by its benevolence. And those who have been vouchsafed great riches should contribute of their superfluity to libraries, colleges, hospitals and philanthropic objects which aid to self-help rather than impoverish. He would have a university at every man's door through a public library, and asserts that men should do their giving while alive and able to direct it, rather than by testamentary gifts. The volume of essays just issued are contributions to *The Century Magazine*, *North American Review*, *Forum* and several English reviews, and cover a period of twelve years. The contents include such subjects as the following: "How I Served My Apprenticeship;" "The Gospel of Wealth;" "The Advantages of Poverty;" "An Employer's View of the Labor Question;" "Distant Possessions;" "Does America Hate England?" and "Imperial Federation." Mr. Carnegie writes in a vigorous way as a practical man thinks, and his thoughts stimulate thinking and should have an influence upon those situated as is he, blessed in a princely way by the riches of this earth.

F. C. H.

[Gospel of Wealth. By Andrew Carnegie. \$2.00. New York: The Century Company.]

Those who found Dr. Josiah Strong a sane and competent teacher in "Our Country" and in "The Twentieth Century City," will find him equally stimulating and instructive in his new book, "Expansion under New World-Conditions." In this volume Dr. Strong first remarks upon the expansion of our arable public lands. Then he takes up our new manufacturing supremacy and presents his reasons for believing that it gives promise of permanence. Upon these premises he is led to conclude "that our manufacturing interests must inevitably become relatively greater while our agricultural interests become relatively smaller; so that our national welfare will be increasingly dependent upon foreign markets." It is further argued that "we are dependent on such markets, not merely for industrial prospects, but also for political and social health." Attention is then called to the awakening of China, to the conviction that the needs of that empire are complementary to ours and to the importance of keeping the door to China open. In the concluding chapters it is shown that the new Isthmian canal will confer on us the commercial "scepter of the Pacific" and that "the Pacific is to become the center of the world's population, commerce, wealth and power," and, finally, that "we are entering upon a new world life which creates new necessities and new obligations." Dr. Strong asserts that it is quite too late to ask if we will expand. He says that we have already expanded. Washington's advice, "Let us mind our



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own business," he declares was admirable for that age and equally good for this. "Then our business was confined to this continent," says Dr. Strong, "now it is in the ends of the earth. By all means let us mind it." Three possible courses are said to be open to us now: first, "to drift out into the sea of politics with no chart at all, hugging the delusion that we are still safely anchored in the bay of political isolation;" second, "to sail out recklessly with a false chart;" third, "to sail out courageously with a true chart." J. M. S.

[Expansion Under New World-Conditions. By Josiah Strong. Paper, .50. Cloth, \$1.00. New York: The Baker & Taylor Co.]

"A Country Without Strikes" is the title by which Henry Demarest Lloyd refers to New Zealand, because of the experience of that country with compulsory arbitration. Mr. Lloyd's reputation for investigation of important economic problems has been established by his "Wealth Against Commonwealth" and his later "Labor Co-partnership." He is one of the foremost contributors to current industrial discussion. The book on New Zealand's remarkable experiment with arbitration for labor troubles has an introduction by W. P. Reeves, ex-minister of labor in New Zealand and author of the compulsory arbitration law. The book should be read by all who believe that experience can teach lessons worth learning. The author observes that "perhaps the greatest aspect of the law of New Zealand is this—that it 'blazes the trail' along which international arbitration must move if it would succeed." Among other results of New Zealand's experience it may be noted that there trade unions are given new rights and are called upon to admit all competent working men in the trade. F. C. B.

[A Country Without Strikes. By Henry Demarest Lloyd. \$1.00. New York: Doubleday, Page & Co.]

Bound together by invisible linkings of the author's admiration for noble perception and beautiful expression of the ideal, essays on twelve artists of different times and countries have been collected into a little book that will greatly rejoice the present friends of Mr. William Howe Downes and gain new ones for him. The poet's touch of music and the painter's sense of color are infused into his words, so that a varied delight diffuses from the small treasury of his compilation. The artists of whom he writes are Hals, Rembrandt, Rubens, Fortuny, Daubigny, Rops, Boutet de Monvel, Winslow Homer, St. Gaudens, Inness, La Farge and Sargent. A. E. H.

[Twelve Great Artists. By William Howe Downes. 4½ x 7. \$1.00. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.]

The latest edition of Webster's International Dictionary is printed from new and corrected plates, and contains a supplement of twenty-five thousand additional words, phrases and definitions prepared under the

supervision of William T. Harris, United States Commissioner of Education. This supplement of 234 pages brings the present book down to the year 1900. Among the specialists employed in bringing the dictionary to date may be mentioned Dr. A. C. True, Director of United States Agricultural Experiment Stations; David J. Brewer, Associate Justice of the United States Supreme Court; General A. W. Greely, of United States Army and formerly chief of the Weather Bureau; W. Buck, and R. H. Chittenden, director of Sheffield Scientific School, Yale University. The contribution of words to this volume from Australasia is one of the striking evidences of the constantly enlarging field which American dictionaries must cover in these latter days. In his preface, Mr. Harris says that "especial pains have been taken to avoid that besetting sin of lexicographers, the resorting to mere synonyms as definitions, with the omission of specific differences, in order to secure conciseness and save labor." F. C. B.

[Webster's International Dictionary. New Edition. Springfield, Mass.: G. & C. Merriam Co.]

"The Chautauqua Year Book," a volume of quotations for each day of the year selected and edited by Grace Leigh Duncan, has become a part of the daily reading of a wide circle of Chautauquans and believers in all lands, of whose religious life it is a valued feature. The Year Book has an introduction by Bishop Vincent, a view of the Hall of Philosophy for its frontispiece, and is a handsomely bound volume with deckle edges. W. S. B.

[The Chautauqua Year Book. Edited by Grace Leigh Duncan. 4 x 7. \$1.00. Boston: The Pilgrim Press.]

"The Sunday-School and Chautauqua Booklet" for 1901, edited by Grace Leigh Duncan, is a calendar of daily reading following the topics of the International Sunday-School Lessons. In the words of Dr. A. E. Dunning of the International Lesson Committee, who has written its introduction, the book should make better teachers, wiser scholars, and happier homes for those who use it to mark the 365 steps of the year. W. S. B.

[The Sunday-School and Chautauqua Booklet. Edited by Grace Leigh Duncan. 4 x 5. .25. Syracuse, N. Y.: Lyman Bros.]

An Automobile Annual is one of the latest enterprises of an American publishing house. This book, of pocket size, fully illustrated, contains the history of automobiles and description of the improvements up to date, besides covering the different styles of motor vehicles. The Annual includes both Chicago and New York City ordinances regulating the operation of automobiles, and over one hundred illustrations. The explanations are easy to follow and understand. F. C. B.

[Lee's American Automobile Annual for 1900. Edited by Alfred B. Chambers, Ph. D. Illustrated. Flexible leather, \$1.50. Chicago: Laird & Lee.]

In 575 pages, under the title "Home Science," Dr. G. H. Michel has sought to give a philosophy of health; to classify symptoms of disease so that people can treat themselves intelligently; to classify and describe diseases in untechnical terms; to formulate rules of longevity; to classify foods according to nutritive value; and to make plain the functional mechanism of life. The work contains many common-sense helps for self-preservation, but the English in which it is written needs revision. F. C. B.

[Home Science. By Dr. G. H. Michel. \$3.00. Cleveland: The Burrows Brothers Company.]

For a fuller announcement of books and a more complete description of fall and winter literature see front advertising section of the present number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN.



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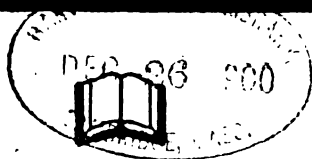
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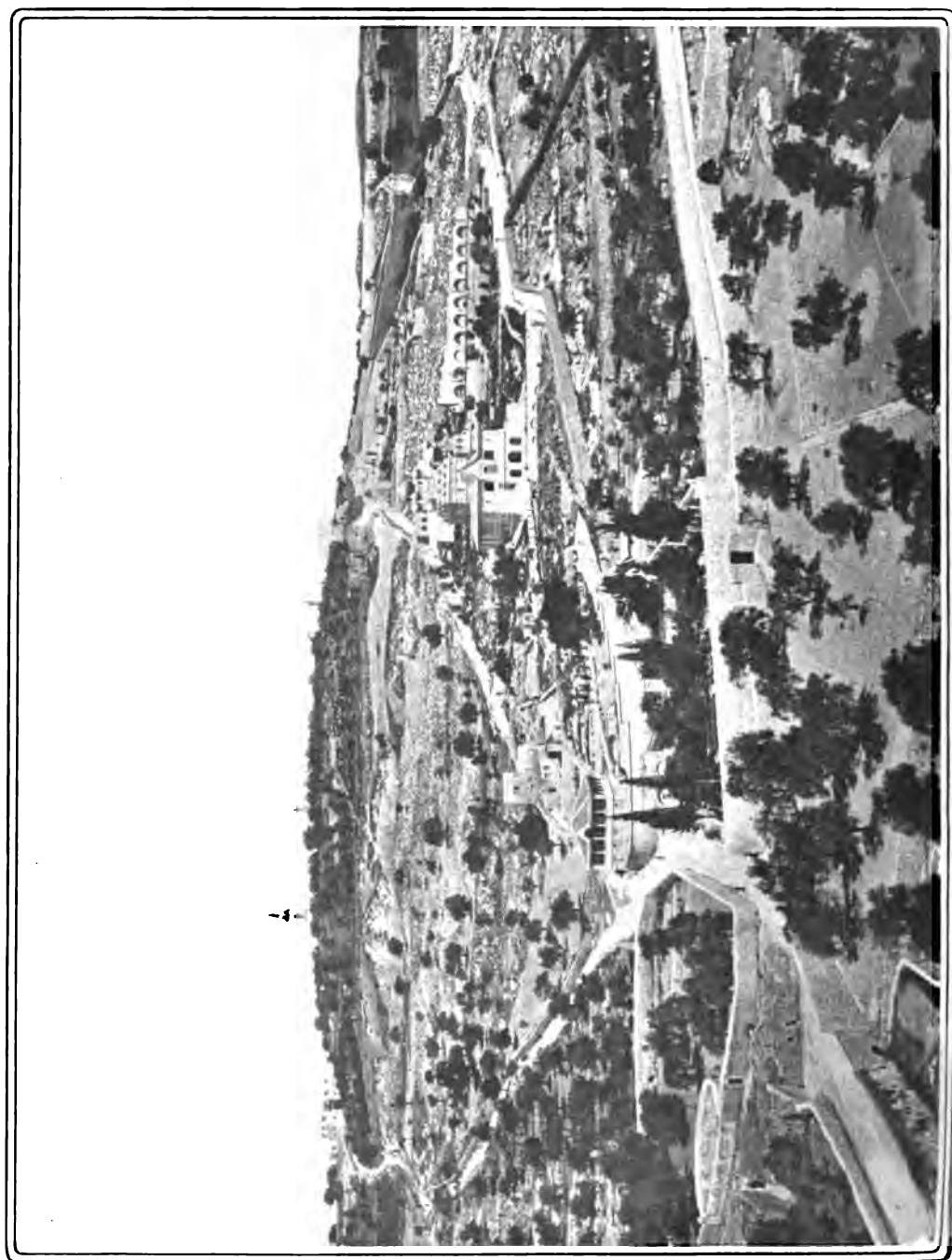
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BUREAU OF PUBLICATION: WILLIAM S. BAILEY, Director.
CLEVELAND, OHIO.

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THE CHAUTAUQUAN,

A Monthly Magazine for Self-Education.

VOL. XXXII.

JANUARY, 1901.

No. 4.

Highway & Byway



WHILE the recent information in relation to the Chinese complications is lacking in definiteness, its effect is reassuring. There is reason to believe that but for the earnest efforts of the United States, the "concert" would have faced disruption; the protracted discussions by the foreign ministers at Peking threatened complete failure to advance the desired settlement. The trouble was that two of the powers—Germany and Great Britain—maintained an extreme position and demanded from China terms which she could not possibly grant or comply with. The full program formulated by the ministers, as officially given to the reichstag by the new chancellor, Von Bülow, and confirmed in Anglo-American despatches, embraced the following demands or conditions:

- (1) Execution by Chinese government of 11 designated princes and other dignitaries.
- (2) Indemnity for murder of missionaries and damages to property of foreigners.
- (3) Indemnity for military expenses of foreign government.
- (4) Substitution of a foreign minister for the tung-li-yamen.
- (5) Access by ministers from other countries to the presence of the emperor.
- (6) Razing of forts at Taku and elsewhere on the Chinese coast, and prohibition of importation of munitions of war.
- (7) Permanent foreign legion guards and permanent foreign guards from Peking to Taku.
- (8) Erection of a monument to Baron Von Ketteler on the spot where he was murdered, and despatch of a Chinese prince to Berlin with a formal apology.
- (9) Suppression of wars by imperial proclamation, removal and punishment of all officials who in future fail to protect foreigners, and suspension of provincial civil service examinations for five years.

It was reported from Peking, though unofficially, that the aggregated sums demanded by way of indemnity amounted to \$600,000,000—a sum utterly beyond the ability of China to meet. Our State Department feared that if the above program were resolutely adhered to, the result would be the collapse of the peace negotiations and the seizure of territory by one or more of

the powers by way of compensation or future guarantees. It accordingly addressed an identical note to the powers urging a modification of the first, second and third demands. Exactly what the United States sought to obtain appears clearly, if inferentially, from the statements found on the China question in the president's recent message to congress. With regard to the punishment of guilty Chinese our government asks "full expiation within the rational limits of retributive justice." The nature and degree of the penalties are to be left to the imperial government with the understanding that in each case the punishment shall be as severe as the native law and the conditions of the country shall allow. This means that several powerful princes will escape death and suffer degradation and banishment only.

As for indemnity, the Chinese government is to admit its liability and promise to pay whatever amount subsequent investigation shall prove to be just and proper. On this point President McKinley made an important suggestion in his message (and doubtless also in the identical note to the powers). Here are his words:

"The matter of indemnity for our wronged citizens is a question of grave concern. Measured in money alone, a sufficient reparation may prove to be beyond the ability of China to meet. All the powers concur in emphatic disclaimers of any purpose of aggrandizement through the dismemberment of the empire. I am disposed to think that due compensation may be made in part by increased guarantees of security for foreign rights and immunities, and, most important of all, by the opening of China to the equal commerce of all the world."

It is possible that the whole indemnity question will be referred to the international court of arbitration organized under the convention framed at The Hague. Our government has serious doubts as to the wisdom or necessity of two or three other demands in the above program, but it is understood to have accepted them for the sake of harmony

and progress toward a settlement. The concert, as Lord Salisbury said in open Parliament, has a reasonable degree of vitality, but its pace is rather slow and no one knows how much time it will yet require to reach an agreement. Meanwhile it is a cause for



THE LATE
CUSHMAN K. DAVIS,
Chairman of Senate Committee on Foreign Relations.

congratulation that the American policy of moderation and conciliation bids fair to prevail. The two accepted principles of the "open door" and the preservation of China's integrity would be imperiled by the opposite policy of excessive severity and retaliation.

It is doubtful if any partition of China could be more than temporary. The Chinese have never been a warlike people

and they have suffered from many invasions, but the growth and expansion of the Chinese empire have been limited only by physical obstacles and the difficulties of travel. China has grown by being conquered. Her people have overrun the territory of her despoilers and made it Chinese. The Mongols under Kublai Khan seized the reins of government, but within a hundred years the Chinese had absorbed them and made their country tributary to the dragon throne. Still later the Manchus invaded China and usurped the sovereignty, but they too have been swallowed up in the rising flood of black-haired men, and their country has been made into a province of the empire. The Chinese have never really been conquered, and it seems about time that the idea was abandoned that the oldest and most stable empire on earth has been reared by a race of cowards. Three times before in this century the Chinese have taken issue with the outside world, and they have made a better showing with each succeeding effort. After the utter collapse of the Chinese arms in the Japanese war, who would have dreamed that they would have offered such an argument to the whole civilized world as they have just done? The failure of the present uprising will not be accepted by the Chinese as a defeat, but merely as an indication that the movement was premature, and they will doubtless at

begin their preparations for another

uprising. The whole system of Chinese education has made the people peculiarly susceptible to reason, and the powers should understand that no settlement of the Chinese question can be permanent unless it gives substantial justice to the Chinese people. China's present weakness is due to her lack of the modern means of transportation. Her resources are gigantic, but she is unable to marshal them, and it is this which makes her helpless before her foes. While this condition prevails the several spheres of influence would doubtless fall an easy prey to the powers claiming them. But when these modern invaders shall have supplied the empire with modern facilities for transportation, it seems likely that history may repeat itself and that the Chinese may come again unto their own.

An interesting ebb and flow of Japanese immigration has been witnessed on the Pacific coast during the last six months. Early last year Japanese employment agencies and agents of steamship lines created an exodus from Japan by circulating information to the effect that rare opportunities were open in the United States to any number of Japanese laborers, owing to the fact that seventy thousand American laborers had been recruited in the army, and that thirty thousand more had gone gold hunting in Alaska. The wily Japanese took the bait, and for several months every transpacific steamer that had touched at a Japanese port was laden with fortune hunters from the land of the cherry blossom. In June alone over fifteen thousand Japanese left their native shores for this country. The coming of these foreigners was too much for the labor markets on the Pacific coast, and the wide awake labor unions filed their vigorous protests with congressional representatives, demanding a stricter enforcement of the immigration laws. The political campaign was on at that time; legislative relief was necessarily a long way off, and quite uncertain at best. The Japanese government came to the relief of the much alarmed labor agitator. As the attention of the Japanese consuls on the coast was drawn to the unique situation, it became evident that trouble might ensue and the friendly relations between Japan and the United States be disturbed, the consuls probably having in mind the fate of the Chinese laborers at Rock Creek, and of the Italians at Tallulah. They therefore joined in a recommendation to their home government that all immigration to the United

States be prohibited for an indefinite period. The government was not slow to act upon the recommendation, and at present only a score or so of Japanese arrive at the various Pacific coast ports each month. The regulation of the Japanese government applies apparently to our insular possessions in the Pacific also, for a falling off of Japanese immigration has been reported, especially in Hawaii. A new factor in the problem is about to appear in the Sandwich Islands, as a company of natives from Porto Rico has left the Atlantic island for the one far away in the Pacific, to seek employment on the sugar plantations. The emigrants arrived at New Orleans from Porto Rico and were prevented from landing by the officials because they were construed to be under contract to labor in Hawaii. The case will probably have to go to the treasury officials in Washington; and in connection with its solution several interesting questions touching the relation of Porto Rico to the United States will have to be decided.



Contrary to all expectations, the cabinet of Waldeck-Rousseau is still in existence. The closing of the Paris exposition ended the "truce" between the supporters of the "government of republican defense" and the coalition of rabid Nationalists, Royalists, anti-Semites, etc., who are determined to overthrow the republic. The war has been renewed, but so far without serious results to the ministry. At the same time the tenure of the government is exceedingly precarious, and any day it may be ousted by the moderates joining the irreconcilable opposition.

The visit of President Kruger to France and Paris seemed to afford the Nationalists a rare opportunity. The government had been neutral in the South African war and was anxious to remain so. It was not prepared to intervene, or even to suggest arbitration to Lord Salisbury, though President Kruger, it is known, has hoped to induce Europe to mediate or to urge arbitration between the Dutch republics and Great Britain. While there is plenty of genuine sympathy with the brave and heroic Boers in France, and the demonstrations in honor of Kruger were undoubtedly popular and spontaneous, the Nationalists had planned to place the government in a false and dangerous position. Had the ministers refused full recognition to Kruger, the Chamber of Deputies would surely have passed a vote of

censure and thus driven the government from power. Accordingly Waldeck-Rousseau concluded that the part of wisdom was to accord Oom Paul all the official recognition due to a foreign ruler traveling *incognito*. Fortunately this did not involve a breach of neutrality, since the British government had not notified the powers of the annexation of the Transvaal, and therefore Kruger was still sovereign of an independent state. Furthermore, the government did not resist a resolution of sympathy with President Kruger, which both houses of parliament adopted unanimously. It would have been fatal to have attempted the slightest opposition.

Great Britain suffered no little annoyance and chagrin, but the thoughtful realized that Waldeck-Rousseau was bowing to necessity and directing popular agitation in a safe channel. No grave consequences will follow the visit of Oom Paul to France—or to Europe in general. The time for intervention is over, and there is no reason to believe that any government will go even to the length of making a friendly representation in behalf of the Boers.

Reverting to the political situation in France, however, it is to be observed that while the Nationalists have been thwarted thus far, it is too early to predict the failure of their campaign. The Republican-Socialist ministry is now entering upon the most difficult part of its task. Its program is too bold to escape attack. There will be an effort to suppress the religious associations and appropriate their funds, for they are conspiring against the republic. It is also proposed to exclude from public service all those who have been educated in other than state schools. These measures, it is believed, cannot be broached without provoking a bitter war between State and Church. Even the sincere admirers of Waldeck-Rousseau express strong doubt regarding the wisdom of his policy. He has, however, a number of popular proposals in his program, such as old-age pensions, the promotion of arbitra-



JUDGE GEORGE GRAY,
Member of International
Court of Arbitration.

tion between employers and employed and a reduction of taxes burdening industry. Whether these will save him from defeat remains to be seen. But it is interesting to know that the French government, which rests on the loyalty of the provinces rather than of Paris, has declared itself in favor of "social reform" and increased activity on the part of the state in economic relations.



The cable news from Paris and London bearing date of December 4 was of a character to recall the sensations which stirred those capitals in the first years of the nineteenth century. General Mercier in the senate of the French republic was discussing the inadequacy of the pending bill for the augmentation of the navy. He declared, amid scenes of the most dramatic intensity, that in the event of a conflict with England his country should be fully prepared to cross the channel and effect a landing on the English coast. That such a maneuver was practicable he showed at some length, declaring that he had himself formulated a plan of operations which might at least serve as a basis for further consideration. His indiscretion was carrying him farther when many senators shouted protests and the presiding officer urged him not to make public such delicate details. He persisted so far as to say that his design was not unlike that which the Japanese had successfully followed in the invasion of China in 1895. For the preliminary work, which ought to be done at once, an expenditure of ten million francs would suffice, and the preparations would not constitute a provocation to Great Britain or even show a desire for war. If they should, however, make it necessary for Britain to assume military burdens equal to those of the continental powers, certainly no one on the continent would have cause for complaint. To the navy bill he offered the following amendment:

"The senate calls on the government as a matter of urgency to complete the mobilization scheme of the army and navy by making all the necessary preparations to embark and disembark as rapidly as possible an expeditionary —"

He was not allowed to finish his sentence, and under a parliamentary ruling was forced to take his seat. He had said enough, however, to set all the world agog next morning. Almost a hundred years ago Napoleon massed immense armaments along the channel for the invasion of England. How profoundly the English nation was stirred by the menace is not only recorded in history but indelibly

graven in literature in some of Wordsworth's most striking sonnets: "To the Men of Kent," "In the Pass of Killiecrankie," and "October, 1803." The emperor is reported to have declared, "Give us the channel for six hours and England is ours." But the channel was Nelson's, and Napoleon never crossed it until twelve years later he went as a desperate fugitive, a prisoner under the flag of King George. The naval and military critics will never forgive the French senators for shutting General Mercier's mouth when he was on the point of disclosing his plan for throwing England off her guard for the necessary six hours.



During the present "short session" of congress, in addition to the several appropriation bills, the questions of army reorganization, subsidies to ship owners engaged in foreign trade and the construction of an isthmian canal connecting the two oceans are to be discussed and, if possible, settled. The Republicans demand a permanent increase of the regular army from 29,000 men to 60,000, with authority for the chief executive to increase it, in case of necessity, to 100,000 men. The Democrats will oppose the bill, and advocate a temporary increase and the calling of volunteers for another period of two years. The canal question is rather complicated. The policy of the administration has undergone no change. It favors the construction of a canal at public expense under an agreement with the great powers assuring the absolute neutrality of the water-way in peace as well as war. There is much dissatisfaction among Repub-



CLOSING IN ON THE ENEMY.

—Minneapolis Tribune.

licans with this neutrality feature. An "all-American" canal is demanded—a canal that the United States might close to an enemy and regard as part of its coastline. The pros and cons of this matter have been amply discussed, and there is no occasion to elaborate either position. But before a canal can be begun the diplomatic difficulties must be cleared away. Under the Clayton-Bulwer convention this country is debarred from constructing an "all-American" canal, and the Hay-Pauncefote treaty, which failed of ratification at the last session, does not alter the situation materially. It really revives the former treaty, provides for nominal control by the United States and guarantees its neutrality. It is again before the senate, and it may receive the votes necessary to ratification.

Meantime the isthmian canal commission, after a thorough investigation, has submitted a preliminary report favoring the Nicaragua route and rejecting the Panama alternative as inexpedient. The Panama company has no perpetual franchise and is not willing to surrender its concession to the United States. The distances from San Francisco to New York and Liverpool and other ports counted on to supply trade are shown to be greater, via Panama than via Nicaragua. To these, other reasons are added by the commission, and its conclusion is that the Nicaragua route is the most feasible and economical. The cost of the canal is estimated at \$200,000,000 (a sum much in excess of previous figures), and the time for the completion of the enterprise is fixed at ten years. The governments of Nicaragua and Costa Rica are untrammelled (save by treaties with England) and are willing to grant the United States the right to build, operate and police the proposed water-way. If the Hay-Pauncefote treaty is approved, the canal will be undertaken forthwith, for every obstacle will have disappeared. If the opponents of neutrality succeed in defeating the treaty, indefinite postponement of the project will be inevitable. It is by no means certain that the British government would consent to abrogate the Clayton-Bulwer convention and allow us to construct a canal exclusively ours in time of war. The Suez principle is now universally recognized. Even if Great Britain should acquiesce, Germany, France, and other continental powers might object.

Much hostile criticism has been provoked by the action of Mrs. Stanford in dismissing (in accordance with the legal right claimed

for and conceded to her) one of the chief professors of the Leland Stanford, Jr., University at Palo Alto, Dr. Ross, who occupied the chair of political economy. The whole question of university "freedom of teaching" is revived, and it is gratifying to read the vigorous expressions against the spirit of proscription and intolerance. Dr. Ross insists that Mrs. Stanford's displeasure was caused solely by his non-partisan, scientific utterances on such questions as Chinese labor and immigration, railway encouragement by the government and the monetary standard. President Jordan, whose own position is said to be insecure, owing to his pronounced "anti-imperialism," has mildly protested that there is no reason to believe that Dr. Ross is a martyr to freedom of speech and teaching. But the faculty and the students are with Professor Ross and emphatically condemn Mrs. Stanford's illiberal and arbitrary action. Few commentators have ventured to defend or apologize for Mrs. Stanford, while the most significant remarks on the other side are undoubtedly those of the *New York Evening Post*, which is wholly out of sympathy with Professor Ross's financial views. That able paper admits that the efforts to muzzle college teachers are becoming too frequent and that universities are peculiarly exposed to the "arrogance of the commercial spirit, the spirit that reckons social amenities, political policies and parties, learning, professional honor, the church, the laws of morality themselves, merely in terms of dollars and cents." Speaking of Mrs. Stanford as a type, the *Evening Post* goes on to say:

"She can adopt either the policy of choosing men of intelligence, training, and character to conduct her university, and then trusting them till their minds or characters prove wanting; or she can adopt the policy of weeding out heretics, a process to be completed only when the mind of man ceases to develop. By the first method she may build up a university worthy of the name; by the second, she will build up an organ of 'lost causes and forsaken beliefs and impossible loyal-



BARON OSWALD VON
RICHTHOFEN,

New German Minister for
Foreign Affairs.

(From a photograph by Höffert, Berlin.)

ties; by the first, a school for the education of men; by the second, a factory for the production of dummies."

But heresy hunting is only one of the evils of a new and general tendency in college management—a tendency which is viewed with grave apprehension by many. We refer to the selection of trustees merely on account of their wealth. On this point our contemporary says, with force:



THE LATE MAX MÜLLER,
Eminent Philologist.

"We are constantly tempted to pack the boards with trustees who have no earthly qualification for the position except ability to foot the bills. Almost any reader of this newspaper knows of cases where men who are grossly ignorant and prejudiced, without the

faintest conception of the true function of learning or the true attitude of a scholar, are yet given a voice in the control of a college solely because they are rich. The presence of such men on the board of trustees is a menace. There is no immediate danger that our rich men will be unduly neglected in the composition of our boards of college trustees; there is very immediate danger that the element of culture and character may be neglected. And just as surely as our alumni fail to see to it that culture and character are properly represented, just so surely will our colleges become centers of sordid intolerance."



A question of much importance in the United States is the possibility of restricting the publication and sensational display of criminal news. The abuses of the "yellow journals" have become intolerable to thoughtful people, and in more than one state the legislature has been appealed to for relief. But the offending press invokes the principle of the freedom of the press, and asserts that any law limiting the right of publication would contravene the constitutional guarantees of freedom of speech and writing. Is this absolutely true? Connecticut has enacted a law for the express and special purpose of suppressing the publication of news relating to vice and crime. It provides for the punishment of persons who sell, or have in their possession with intent to sell, papers devoted to the publication of stories of crime and criminal news. Naturally, the validity of this act was called into question, and the supreme court of the state recently rendered a decision in the

premises. The act was sustained as wholly compatible with the constitutional guaranty of a free press.

The court reasoned as follows: The right to free publication is no more absolute than any other right. It is an ultimate, fundamental principle that a citizen, in exercising his faculties and freedom, must refrain from injuring others. Libel is prohibited and punished without violence to freedom of the press, and it is also within the police power of the legislature to prohibit or restrict the publication of matter tending to corrupt and demoralize the community. "The liberty protected," says the court, "is not the right to perpetrate acts of licentiousness, or any act inconsistent with the peace or safety of the state. Freedom of speech and press does not include the abuse of the power of tongue or pen, any more than freedom of other action includes an injurious use of one's occupation, business or property."

Clear as this seems, it is by no means free from difficulties. Granted that the freedom of each is necessarily bounded by the equal freedom of all, must not the injury forbidden be direct and obvious? Libel laws are not an infringement of free publication, because a libel is a certain abuse of freedom. But the "peace and safety of the state" is a vague phrase, which may justify anything. If the legislature may prohibit the publication of criminal news, may it not also prohibit the publication of accounts of strikes, official abuses, etc.? Is the legislature to be the judge of what is safe and fit for publication? If so, what value is there in the constitutional guaranty? Is the judiciary to determine whether the legislature is reasonable or unreasonable in attempted restrictions upon the freedom of the press?

We abhor "yellow journalism," but even such journalism is better than legislation which virtually nullifies freedom of speech and publication. The publication of actual facts cannot possibly be prohibited without violence to the spirit of the principle of free speech and press. In fiction, it is next to impossible to draw a legal line between "dime shockers" and stories of adventure, like Stevenson's and Haggard's. The safest course is to give liberty the benefit of the doubt, and educate public opinion to frown upon corrupting and scandal-mongering journalism or trashy but demoralizing fiction.



In the interesting case of the editor of the London *Times* against John Lane, the publisher, which involved the question as to

whether a reporter who takes down a speech word for word is entitled to copyright, the House of Lords (being the British tribunal of ultimate appeal) recently reversed the court of appeal and affirmed the decision of the judge in the court below. It held that a reporter, in the circumstances described, is an "author" and as such is entitled to copyright. In arguing the case Mr. Augustin Birrell, the brilliant essayist and lawyer, urged upon the Lords that there was but one criterion in copyright—the presence or absence of the element of literary composition. An exact reporter, he contended, was like a mocking-bird or a phonograph; he echoed some one's words and produced nothing original. Of what was he an "author" in reporting another's speech? What right can he have in the speech, as against its real author?

Lord Robertson, in a dissenting opinion, vigorously supported this view. The majority, however, held that a reporter was the author of *his report* of a speech not copyrighted by the speaker himself. The test, according to them, was not literary composition, but the expenditure of labor, time and money. The law does not permit any man to avail himself of the skill and expense by means of which a reporter or his superior obtained and first gave to the public a speech or oration. What right has the public to multiply copies of such a report, and why should not the man who incurred trouble and expenditure in procuring it have copyright? These seem to be plausible questions, but the answer is that a reporter should be paid once for his labor and that his claim should cease with the first publication. The idea of literary property is that he who originates something should be protected. The reporter has contributed neither ideas nor form, and as a mere laborer he is worthy of his hire, but not entitled to copyright. To say that he has no property right in the speech itself, but only in his report of it, is to draw a purely verbal and unsubstantial distinction.



At last the United States supreme court has passed upon the constitutionality of the so-called "Jim Crow" car legislation, but unfortunately the issue as presented to it was rather narrow and technical. Kentucky, in common with other southern states, has a law compelling railway companies to provide separate passenger coaches for persons of color. An Ohio company passing through Kentucky refused to comply with this

requirement on the ground that it was an interference with interstate commerce and as such repugnant to the federal constitution, which vests in congress the exclusive power to regulate commerce between the states. The supreme court overrules this contention, on the ground that the Kentucky statute as construed and applied by the state courts was limited only to travel between points in the state. In other words, the Ohio railroad company was not compelled to furnish separate cars for negroes except within the boundaries of Kentucky, and this, it is held, cannot be considered an attempt at regulating interstate commerce.



THE LATE WM. L. WILSON,
President Washington and Lee
University.

Justice Harlan dissents from the decision of the court. He holds that the car laws, even if limited in operation to points within a state, are regulations of interstate commerce, so far at least as the companies which cover more than one state are concerned. He furthermore declares that no state has the constitutional power to order the separation of the population into classes for purposes of transportation. This view is consonant with enlightened public policy, but the majority of the justices evidently did not deem themselves entitled to deal with the moral or social question involved in the case.



Four colored men who a short time ago sailed from New York for Africa constitute a unique contribution of the United States toward the higher development of the Dark Continent. These young men are from the Tuskegee Industrial Institute, and are the product of Booker T. Washington's devotion to the cause of his fellow negroes. They are on their way to a colony called Togo, on the west coast of Africa, north of the Coast of Guinea, between Dahomey and Ashantee. It is a significant illustration of the revenges of time that these four negroes, whose ancestors were slaves, are to labor in that part of Africa from which the largest number of slaves were taken for the American

market. They have gone to Africa under the auspices of the German government to instruct the natives of the German colony in cotton-raising and general agriculture. Ten bushels of cotton seed, a cotton-gin, lumber wagon, a stock of vegetable seeds, and a full outfit of agricultural tools are part of their equipment. It is natural that the work of these four men should be watched with vigilance and solicitude by many people, since the expedition is not only the most important step in the development of the cotton industry since Whitney invented the cotton-gin, but the presence of these men among the natives who will gradually become acquainted with their history cannot but have an uplifting influence upon them, especially when they learn that their instructors are but a generation from slavery.

Two important national conventions have recently been held at Chicago—one of a number of societies interested in good roads, the other of delegates from agricultural and commercial bodies of the western states concerned in the subject of irrigation. The “annexation” of arid America is the watchword of the national irrigation association. It is claimed that the United States and some of the states hold not less than seventy-five million acres of land, now almost worthless, which could be reclaimed through irrigation and rendered fertile and attractive to millions of settlers. The expense of reclamation is placed at one hundred and fifty million dollars. The method advocated by scientific and experienced men is the construction of enormous reservoirs and channels for the storing of the water of overflow seasons, now going to waste, and, in some cases, even operating as a destructive agency. There is little doubt that the scheme is feasible, but difference of opinion has arisen as to the necessity of government aid and participation. It is urged by some that congress appropriate from \$10,000,000 to \$12,000,000 a year, along with general river and harbor legislation, for the reclamation of the arid lands. Part of the cost, if not indeed the whole of it, could be recovered by imposing a slight charge per acre on the settlers who would occupy and cultivate the land. There are those who believe that private enterprise should be encouraged to undertake the reclamation on a business basis. The subject will doubtless be discussed in congress, and it is obviously worthy of careful consideration. Free land is becoming scarce in the country, and irrigation on the

proposed scale would be a veritable boon to immigrants or natives now overcrowding the industrial centers.

The good roads convention asked no direct aid from the national government. Its announced object was the consolidation of the various local bodies, including bicycle and automobile clubs, into one national association to further steady and uniform state action toward the improvement of highways and streets. According to some railway experts, bad roads annually cost the farmers as much as is paid out in the aggregate for freight transportation to the railways of the country.

State prohibition or regulation of the traffic in liquor and cigarettes has been beset with difficulties ever since the federal supreme court promulgated the strange “original package decision.” Prior to that decision the established doctrine was that a state might restrict or even prohibit the sale of articles imported into it from sister states, provided precisely similar treatment was extended to citizens of the state engaged in the same traffic. Since that ruling, outsiders have had an unfair advantage over the citizens of a state which, by virtue of its police power, regulates or suppresses certain forms of commerce.

Recently the supreme court was called upon to apply the “original package” doctrine to an interesting case. Tennessee has had an act in force for some time prohibiting the sale of cigarettes. The state courts have held that this law may be



Nov. 28, 1900.—The battleship *Kentucky* arrives off the coast of Turkey.
—*Minneapolis Tribune*.

enforced against importers from other states without violation of that clause of the constitution of the United States which leaves all regulation of interstate commerce exclusively to congress. In this conclusion the federal supreme court concurs, but it does not agree with the chief ground assigned therefor by the local judiciary. The Tennessee supreme court had declared that cigarettes were not properly an article of interstate commerce, being hurtful and noxious and beyond the pale of law. No, says the federal tribunal; tobacco in various forms has been a great blessing to humanity, one celebrated in poetry and extolled by art and scholarship, and it has not yet been demonstrated that cigarettes constitute a deleterious form of the weed. Moreover, any product which is recognized by custom, law or practise as a fit subject for barter and sale is a legitimate article of commerce, particularly if its manufacture has been taxed. In construing legislation courts are, of course, bound to take cognizance of ordinary industrial facts, and to say that tobacco is not an article of commerce is to contradict universal experience.

If, then, cigarettes are an article of interstate commerce, may a state prohibit the importation and sale? Yes, answers the court, except so far as original packages are concerned. These may be sold by importers regardless of state law. But what is an original package is a question of fact. In the Tennessee case the court found that the boxes in which the cigarettes were sold were not original packages. No fewer than four justices rendered a dissenting opinion and went to the length of contending that a state cannot prohibit the importation and sale by outsiders of any article in any package, congress being the only body vested with control over interstate commerce. In spite of this dissent, the tendency of the court is to restrict the troublesome "original package" doctrine and to recognize the authority of states to keep out products deemed injurious to health or morals.



Deerfield, in the Massachusetts zone of the Connecticut valley, is famous for its cultivation of antiquity. Its embowered street of ancient houses is worth the pilgrimage which many persons make to see it, and its museum of colonial and Indian relics is not surpassed in New England. In these latter days the old town has become identified with one of those village industries — "cottage" industries would be a misnomer for

handiwork done in those dignified seventeenth century mansions — which have been revived in New England in the present generation. It seems that in the good old colonial times the goodwives of this valley were noted for their skill in dyes, and in embroidery. Their great-grandchildren have discovered the old recipes for a beautiful blue dye and have undertaken the manufacture of "Deerfield blue and white needlework." The articles are of white, embroidered in blue thread in somewhat archaic pattern and stitch. The color is satisfying, and the work has a certain distinction of design which separates it from foreign or factory work. The articles which we have seen have been dainty pieces of table linen, doilies, center-pieces, etc. They command a ready sale at good prices. At Deerfield and in some other towns of central Massachusetts the weaving of rag-carpet and of splint-baskets has been revived. It is not unusual to find the housemother in one of these old homesteads, her fingers employed in deftly forming one of those dainty, flexible work-baskets which her grandmother found useful for many purposes which we now meet with receptacles of wood, lacquer, glass or even silver and gold. The love for the old-fashioned handiwork is bringing these wares into fresh demand. At one of the meetings of the Massachusetts Federation of Women's Clubs last year several sessions were devoted to a consideration of "Arts and Crafts and Village Industries" for the purpose of discovering how the clubs could assist the movement by their organization. Miss Margaret Whitling told what had been done in Deerfield, and Miss Frances Sparhawk spoke on "The Indian Industries — Lace, Rug, and Basket-Making." One of the novelties exhibited and explained by Mrs. Helen R. Albee was the Abnakee hand-made rug. In the old days the name of Abnakee was not popular in the eastern settlements, though the scalps which the Abnakee lifted from some of the first families of New England were in great demand in French Canada. But within a few years a young woman of Pequaket, New Hampshire, has given lucrative home employment to m-



SIR ARTHUR SULLIVAN,
The late musical composer.

women of that remote rural district in the fabrication of what she calls Abnakee rugs. She supplied materials and designs, dyed the fabric in warm neutral tones, and so directed the crude industry of her artisans that their product became not only beautiful but salable. The scope of the work has greatly expanded, and fabrics are now woven to order for chair-seats, wall-rugs, portières, and couch covers. The philanthropy which prompted the venture has been rewarded by a substantial profit.



In February, 1898, a company of about forty men and women from Ohio, Indiana and Illinois purchased a tract of about one thousand acres of the choicest farming land in Georgia, within ten miles of Columbus. Here they established the Christian Commonwealth Colony of Socialists. The settlers had considerable money, though not enough to pay in full for the land. They erected plain but substantial dwellings, their most expensive structure being the common mess-hall where all took their meals and where religious services were held. A sawmill and a grist-mill were put into operation, and the fine farm land speedily became productive. With the success of the venture during the first year there was general gratification; and the fever of expansion got into the colonists' blood. All obligations were met, and reinforcements came from the north and from the neighboring country. But prosperity was the forerunner of indolence, and the way was opened for dissension and disruption. When one-fifth of the Christian Socialists refused to perform their due share of the labor of the commonwealth the others voted for their expulsion. Those who were at ease in Zion appealed to the courts against the proposed act; and peace departed from the commonwealth's borders. The second year was one of fell disaster, and the native contingent deserted, as did some of the original citizens. The next step was the appointment of a receiver, and the next the sheriff's sale.



A useful, if inconclusive, report on water, gas and electric light plants in the United States has been issued by the federal bureau of labor statistics. The document embodies the data obtained by an inquiry conducted by the state and national bureaus for the purpose of ascertaining the facts regarding private and public ownership and operation of certain utilities. Colonel Carroll D. Wright, the editor of the report, assures us of its impartiality and value, for,

although the information represents only about fifty-six per cent of the total output, it is believed to be absolutely representative of the conditions accompanying the production and supply of water, gas and electricity by private and municipal establishments.

Many will be surprised to find that of the 1,034 waterworks studied, 659 were under municipal control and operation; that of the 355 gas plants, all but eleven were municipal ones, and that of the 952 electric light plants, no fewer than 320 were under municipal operation. These figures alone attest the progress of "municipalization" of public utilities in the United States. The opposition to municipal operation is, in fact, fast disappearing, and before long private plants in this field will be the exception instead of the rule. But what do the official data establish? Colonel Wright draws no conclusions and thinks the evidence insufficient to warrant any. No light, he admits, is thrown upon the question of the relative advantages of the two plans. While the tables of the report show that in every group of waterworks except two the average price charged per gallon is smaller in municipal than in privately-operated plants, that in every group of gas plants except one the average price per 1,000 cubic feet of gas is lower in public than in private plants, and that the average price per ampere of electric light is less in municipal than in private plants, we are warned against hasty deductions, because other things are not always equal and the factors are too numerous and confusing.

But one important fact is strongly indicated by the data,—namely, that the question of cost in producing gas or electricity, or in distributing water is chiefly a question of management. The consumers cannot secure moderate rates where the management is lax and inefficient. This means that municipal operation is of no advantage where "politics" and the spoils system prevail. On the other hand, there is no advantage in the most economical management if the saving is not shared with the consumers, but goes into the pockets of the stockholders of private corporations. It is of general interest to learn that gas can be produced by the larger plants at twenty cents per thousand cubic feet, not including in cost taxes, depreciation, leakage and interest, and at forty to forty-five cents including all these items. Yet in most great cities the people pay a dollar a thousand cubic feet and any demand for reduced rates is

met with the cry of "confiscation." Chicago is the latest municipality to rise against private gas supply and to demand the authority to establish a municipal gas plant. She has long endured the extortion of a gas trust and will submit no longer. The city council has passed an ordinance reducing the price of gas from one dollar to seventy-five cents, but the validity of this legislation is to be determined in injunction proceedings. The present movement in that wide-awake city will lead to municipal gas and electricity.

The coöperative movement is growing in Great Britain at a gratifying rate. No propaganda is carried on in favor of coöperation, but the facts render further appeals to theory a work of supererogation. The last congress of the coöperative societies listened to reports of a most encouraging character. The English coöperative wholesale society had done during the year a business amounting to seventy-one millions of dollars, and the sales of the Scottish coöperative society had amounted to twenty-five millions of dollars. These societies have several great warehouses and own a fleet of seven freight steamships. They conduct a tea trade of considerable proportions, and operate factories for the manufacture of biscuits, cakes, etc. They are particularly and justly proud of their shoe factory near Leicester, whose capacity is fifty thousand pairs a week. They also have flour mills, woolen and clothing factories, printing works, cabinet works and a cigar and tobacco factory. The employees number some ten thousand persons. The chief shareholders are the retail coöperative societies, but the individual workmen also own shares, and all have a voice in the management. The operations are in charge of an elective committee of sixteen members. The efficiency of this committee may be inferred from the fact that factories which had failed in

private hands have been made profitable under its management. Recently the societies have turned their attention to Ireland, where creameries are being established for the production of butter and cheese to be distributed direct to consumers all over the United Kingdom. These wholesale societies minister to the needs and get the custom of the numerous retail coöperative establishments.

The number of registered retail coöperative societies is nearly one thousand seven hundred, with a membership of about one million seven hundred thousand. In 1899 these societies commanded a capital of about one hundred million dollars. The aggregate sales made by them were valued at nearly three hundred and thirty million dollars and their profits reached thirty-six million dollars. At this time each of these items would show a considerable increase.

In some way almost every religious body in America and Europe will note the passing of one century and the opening of another. Methodists North have secured something more than \$8,000,000 of their \$20,000,000, and Wesleyan Methodists of England are on the home stretch with their one million guineas. Presbyterians North are raising a fund but set no stint, and their general assembly moderator is to give all of his time until May in its interest. Congregationalists are trying to raise \$250,000 as a fund forever to keep their historic American board out of what may almost be called its historic condition of indebtedness. Baptists expressly turn from a money observance, and will make the feature of their observance spiritual, keeping the day of prayer for colleges as a day of prayer for the 40,000 students in Baptist institutions, and preaching sermons on world Baptist progress on a certain Sunday next April. Methodists North have a similar spiritual observance, in the form of an effort to win 2,000,000 new

members of Methodist churches. Methodists South have made substantial progress on their fund, and several smaller bodies have funds under way. The Evangelical Alliance for the United States has modernized its topics for the week of prayer, to begin January 6, and individual churches everywhere will observe the last night of the century. An idea new to the times will be an observance of sunrise on January 1—a morning watch of prayer and praise. A general observance has also be-



British Lion.—"I wish I could get rid of these confounded Boer fleas!" —Chicago Record.

recommended, and a large committee named, that is to have headquarters in New York and membership throughout the country and throughout all religious bodies. This movement begins with the new century, but will try to not have its efforts end with its first year. It will work wholly within the churches, will aim at no mass meetings, and will seek to train men now in the churches to reach personally those who are not. It is supported by a large number of leading men in all evangelical bodies. In England the Simultaneous Mission begins with a service in historic Guildhall, London, on January 21, with the Rev. Dr. Joseph Parker, of City Temple, as the preacher. Following this for a fortnight, London, as the center of influence, will be covered with fifty-six circuits, in which the greatest of British preachers will be heard. During February the large provincial cities will be visited, and during March the small towns. Roman Catholics have seen larger numbers flock to Rome and to authorized shrines outside the Sacred City than ever flocked during any Jubilee Year before, and there is talk at this writing of extending the "year" by a period of four or six months.



PRINCE GEORGE OF GREECE,
Now on a visit to European
Cabinets.

The working church year is from October to May, and the beginning of the current year is marked by an unusual lack of "freak" movements. Generally there arise each year from fifteen to fifty new plans of salvation. Boston is headquarters and New York a close second. One man has a way to make people happy and to save them by abolishing all sacraments, all ecclesiasticism, even the Bible itself. Another goes to the other extreme and takes all everybody else has. Remarkable to relate, Boston offers but two such religious innovations this year, and New York only one. Some religious leaders are saying there is a healthy return to religious reason, and the absence of religious short-cuts and personally propagated nostrums would seem to bear out their

claim. Certain it is that a condition of the religious times of this year is an adherence to approved lines. The emphasis is upon the Christ. Comity among denominations, so much talked of two years ago, is little heard of, and the necessity for different views of the same truth is recognized. Withal, there is an earnestness greater than has been seen for some years; so marked in some sections that, during the fortnight preceding general election day, talkers on missions in India and China spoke against political talkers in the same towns on the same evenings and beat them in sizes of audiences.



The Episcopal diocese of New York is erecting a ten million dollar cathedral, but it has in the heart of the lower East Side of New York city a pro-cathedral that was started in its present form and is personally supported by Bishop Potter of that diocese. His vicar in charge of the work there is declared to have been ill-treated by Tammany police, when he undertook to rescue a girl in her teens who had been stolen for immoral purposes. He related the facts, and the diocesan convention, meeting soon after, instructed the bishop to inquire into them, and if the vicar's statements warranted, to make formal protest to the mayor. Bishop Potter found the statements to warrant, and he sent a dignified letter to Mayor Van Wyck. He neither scolded on the one hand, nor held up an impossible ideal on the other. Tammany threw itself into a panic of reform, in the midst of which Tammany's owner, Richard Croker, sailed for Europe. A wave of reform, in which landlords are expected to do much of the work and make most of the sacrifices, is rolling about, at this writing, it must be confessed, rather aimlessly, and cities other than New York, notably Chicago and Philadelphia, are looking into conditions obtaining in their submerged quarters. In order to make the reform in New York permanent, Bishop Potter suggested a permanent committee, with a large following, and that vigilance band is in process of formation and education. The Chamber of Commerce, representing the business interests, and practically all church organizations, representing the religious ones, are taking interest in the movement.



The Episcopal General Convention of 1898 appointed a committee of six clergy and six laymen to consider the question of canons

on marriage and divorce. The committee met a year ago and after spending much time was unable to agree. Near the end of November it met a second time and unanimously concurred in three canons which are to be presented to the general convention which meets in October of this year. The two first canons are declaratory, and the third clause of the third one provides for appeals. The clauses of wide interest are the first two of Canon III. They read:

"No person divorced for cause arising after marriage, and marrying again during the lifetime of the other party to the divorce, shall be admitted to baptism or confirmation, or received to the Holy Communion — except when penitent and separated from the other party to the subsequent marriage — or when penitent and in immediate danger of death; but this canon shall not apply to the innocent party to a divorce for the cause of adultery. No person shall be denied baptism, confirmation or the Holy Communion under this canon until after the minister shall have given to the person due and sufficient notice of such intended denial."

The cause of this proposed advance has been gaining ground steadily in the Episcopal Church during the last few years. There are now heard some objections, and the canons may not be adopted, but it cannot be denied that the movement in favor of more stringent laws on the subject are no longer confined to the advanced wing in this communion.

There are in the United States about thirty male lay organizations in the Roman Catholic Church having memberships exceeding five thousand each. Twenty-five years ago an effort was made to federate them, and failed. A year since a second effort was begun. It resulted in holding a preliminary meeting in Philadelphia in September, and an adjourned one in New York on Thanksgiving day. So far formal delegations have been secured to these meetings for organization from about one-half the societies, a working plan has been mapped out, and a third meeting is to be held in Cincinnati next May. The purposes of the federation are social, educational, and religious. In some quarters political ambitions have been charged, but these are denied. Leaders say it is nothing more than an effort of laymen to advance their interests, and that there is no more significance in Roman Catholic laymen so acting than has there been when Protestant laymen worked together. The organizations concerned are such as the Hibernian Society, the Catholic Knights, the Catholic Mutual Benefit, the Total Abstinence, etc. Originally these and similar organizations were

insurance societies merely, but the church has accorded them what amounts to official recognition, and they are church lay agencies in all essential respects.

Bible chairs are features of the Universities of California and Virginia, and some progress has been made in firmly establishing them in Minnesota, Michigan and Georgia. Now the women of the Christian or Disciples body, selecting a man of two years' experience at Ann Arbor and a year's special training at the University of Chicago, have sent him to India, to do Bible chair work in the University of Calcutta, where there are said to be ten thousand young men, chiefly non-Christian, from every part. The name of the man selected is Prof. W. N. Forest.

A dozen years ago the name of James R. Joy was introduced to Chautauquans upon the title-page of one of the required books, "Outline History of Greece," which he prepared in collaboration with John H. Vincent. Of that little volume, the "Grecian History" of the present course is the lineal descendant. Mr. Joy has been for several years a member of the editorial staff of the Methodist Book Concern in New York. He is of New England birth and ancestry, and was graduated at Yale in 1885. In 1891 he received the degree of master of arts from the same university in recognition of the



JAMES R. JOY.

studies embodied in the "Outline History of England," which was included in the Chautauqua course. Mr. Joy is a member of several historical societies and in addition to his work for Chautauqua, has contributed frequently to the periodical press on topics in history and genealogy. He has written "An Essay on the Greek Drama,"

"Twenty Centuries of English History," and "Rome and the Making of Modern Europe." His most recent work in genealogy is "Thomas Joy and His Descendants," which is a substantial contribution to New England local and social history in the seventeenth century.

THE MORAL ASPECT OF INSOMNIA.

BY AGNES H. MORTON.



HE sleeplessness that is incident to illness or to unsanitary conditions is merely a physical effect of physical causes, to be met by physical remedies. Sleeplessness from overwork of the brain is also rather a physical than an intellectual condition, and when without emotional complications, it lies fairly within the scope of hygienic treatment. When the mind is free and the heart elated, sound, healthful slumber is possible in spite of much bodily discomfort, as the soldier in camp or on the march will attest. Though discomfort may interfere with sleep for a time, it is not the responsible cause of chronic wakefulness. Medical skill rarely fails to conquer physical conditions, pure and simple.

The most stubborn cases of insomnia are not due to physical causes, and therefore do not yield to physical remedies. It is not the doctor's fault that his diagnosis stops short of the truth. The sleepless one rarely confides to a physician the anxieties and the emotional disturbances that are the real cause of unrest. In vain does the patient follow prescriptions, unless the physician has the insight and the wisdom to "minister to a mind diseased."

Nearly all newspapers reprint from leading medical journals timely practical hints for gaining and preserving health, and no intelligent reader need remain ignorant of the hygiene of rest and slumber. And yet, from pallet of straw or pillow of down, some of us still stare sleeplessly into the hollow darkness, until morning dawns upon tired eyes sunken in dark-ringed circles. With all that science can do for us, why is it that some of us do not sleep? It is evident that the answer to this question will never be found without a careful study of the moral aspect of insomnia. The victims of this life-wearing malady are urged to consider how far sound judgment and a resolute will may control the cause and apply the cure.

If asked to state in a single word the prime cause of their sleeplessness, nine out of ten would say, "I was *worried*." What is worry? Anxious thought out of place; at times when it bears no fruit in definite plan and practical action. Worry is extremely complex, but its conspicuous elements are perplexity and indecision, coupled with dread

of contingencies; for, if one can grasp the situation and decide what to *do*, does not worry vanish? The man who can settle overnight his exact plans for tomorrow, goes to sleep. Study the way in which worry operates, and you discover its elements. Its perplexity wanders over the field of vague possibility; its indecision moves from point to point, uncertain where to drive the first stake; while its apprehensiveness diverts the mind from even these flighty surveys by its suggestions of failure or disaster in whatever might be attempted. In this train of speculation, without beginning and without end, the brain is like an engine running under full head with the power transferred to the "idler." It is this kind of meditation that produces morbid mental activity and the nervous wakefulness that, long continued, becomes habitual insomnia.

The subjects of anxious thought are strangely commingled, but money and health are prominent. Affairs of the heart, ambitions and competitions, and the small jealousies that mar social and professional relations, also have large place. The busiest day may be haunted at intervals by troubled thoughts; but the chosen time for worry to take complete possession is in the hours stolen from sleep.

IDLE REMINISCENCES.

Worry is sometimes retrospective: it reviews failures and disappointments; it broods over old grievances; it repines for things lost beyond recall, nursing memories that were better obliterated if conscience is clear. Retrospective worry is prevailingly sentimental in tone, and it accounts for some morbid attacks of insomnia. Let common sense come to the rescue.

PRESENT ANXIETIES.

Worry over present conditions causes much sleeplessness, and not without reason. The present interests us vitally. Its smallest trouble is very real for the moment. It may seem like comedy ten years hence; but today it is tragedy. Few escape the experience of daily trials. If nothing more serious troubles them, their peculiar environment may subject them to a train of petty annoyances. A vast amount of sleepless vexation is caused by trifles that, taken singly, are

not worthy of so much thought, but which, in the sum total, are exasperating. They are so little, we despise them: they are so many, we succumb to them. This is another case for the exercise of common sense. The reasonable anxieties are those that have practical bearing upon the imminent future.

DECISION AND ACTION VS. WORRY.

Real emergencies demand an immediate consideration of ways and means. Sleepless anxiety then centers in the question, What can I do?—and pointedly, What shall be my first act tomorrow morning? A single step decided upon amounts to a particular affirmative that contradicts the universal negative of worry. This one thing settled, why not go to sleep and rest, and so have a clear brain on the morrow? But no; the chronic worrier will lie awake for hours questioning the outcome. Nervously exhausted, mentally depressed, and physically weary, he faces another day, and after a night of prophetic worry, such effort as he makes is half-hearted and ineffective; whereas, if he had looked no farther than the one duty of the hour, and then deliberately slept over the matter, he might have come to this first tilt in his battle with armor bright and sword-arm steady.

OVERANXIETY.

Extreme worry comes from trying to bear all the cares of a lifetime at once, instead of letting each day's evil be sufficient unto itself. If we could live our whole life in a few hours, it might be consistent to think it all over in one night. There is no past, there is no future, for doing or accomplishing. The present alone is for action; and the order is, and always will be: one thing at a time. This one thing must be done on the instant, in whatsoever circumstances we find ourselves. Not that we should be forgetful of the past, or careless of the future: the former has been our faithful schoolmaster, the latter holds for us the issues of life. That we may act intelligently in the present, it is essential for us to look forward as far as the future can reasonably be predicted. But not to *worry*. A degree of anxiety may be founded upon facts that point almost inevitably to future difficulties; but a large part of the forecast of trouble is groundless, as is proved when things do not turn out as expected. Overanxiety is always crossing bridges before they are reached; and it will stay awake all night borrowing trouble from the remote future.

I once heard of a grandmother who, from

the hour that she received that venerable title, declared that she "could not sleep nights, just worrying about how that boy was going to turn out." This incident suggests that there is a point in worry where egotism is somewhat in evidence; where anxiety is in excess of responsibility. Nothing is more unlovely than the selfishness that has no anxiety except for self; but overzealous anxiety for others, though prompted by affection, may be an unwelcome intrusion. People do a goodly amount of worrying about things that do not legitimately concern them; they would sleep better if they would find the limit of their responsibility and there rest the case.

WORRY EXAGGERATED BY FANCY.

The worst thing about prophetic anxiety is that it is nearly sure to combine with the actual foundations of worry a large percentage of the purely fictitious. We hastily infer the disposition of others, as we think we see it manifested in events. Perhaps we attribute motives where no motives exist. We give our impulsive intuitions all the value of facts, and on this basis we construct our theory of the unknown future. Drawing plausible conclusions from imaginary premises, we forecast dire results from conditions that we have either totally misunderstood or greatly overestimated. A small dread subjected to this magnifying process becomes an impending calamity. The beautiful faculty of the imagination which, in its normal operation, reflects the highest ideal and foreshadows the noblest real, becomes, when perverted, a crooked lens through which shapes appear deformed and the white light of truth is decomposed. No sleepless person is more miserable than the one who wears out the night with exaggerated fancies, which—worse than useless in themselves—totally unfit one to meet the real contingencies with which the unfolding future is constantly surprising the never-ending now.

A HABIT OF ROMANCING.

There is a sentimental phase of insomnia, a habit formed by voluntarily lying awake building "castles in Spain." This pleasurable dreaming seems, at a glance, quite remote from worry; but romancing and worrying are really in the dangerous proximity of cause and effect. In romancing, people create the conditions for subsequent disappointment. They picture, not what is, but what they would desire; and in time the picture becomes more real to them than is

the reality. When actual happenings dispel these illusions, the dreamers awake, bitterly discontented with what they call "their lot." A determined purpose to give every incident its exact value, and to infer absolutely nothing beyond what is demonstrated, will forestall illusions and prevent disappointment. It is good discipline for wide-awake dreamers to cultivate prosaic literalness until they break the fatal habit of romancing about the facts of life.

THE UNQUIET CONSCIENCE.

This is often the active principle in sleepless worry, though pride and stubbornness are slow to concede the fact. It may be a sharp regret for some one grievous offense, or it may be the vague depression that punishes habitual wrong-doing—the unhappy outer-darkness enveloping the soul that is at peace with neither God nor man. History and legend show that insomnia from this cause is not a strictly modern affliction. When we read that Ahasuerus gave royal sanction to the proposed massacre of the Jews, we are not surprised to read immediately after, "On that night could not the king sleep." Centuries later, the halls of Dunsinane echoed to that despairing wail: "Glamis hath murder'd sleep, and therefore Cawdor Shall sleep no more,—Macbeth shall sleep no more!"

It is an artistic recognition of the slumber-killing effect of remorse that from that hour until the end of the drama, Shakespeare portrays the irresolute Macbeth in a constant state of sleepless unrest.

All have not murdered Duncan, but all, by the general confession, are remiss; and somewhere along the line of omission or commission conscience sternly reproves, and commands: Find wherein you are to blame, and promptly atone for your fault. The one accuser from which a man cannot flee is his own conscience. He may defy the world's arraignment, but in the silent night, before his own soul he bows in unreserved confession. What wonder that he cannot sleep until he obeys the inward monitor?

Conscious innocence bears many trials bravely; but void of comfort is that climax of sorrow, "and the worst of it is, that *I blame myself!*" Yet that is *not* the worst; it would be far worse if you did not blame yourself. Be glad that you cannot sleep when you have done wrong. Remorse proves that the soul still lives. The man whose intellect recognizes his crime while his conscience feels no pang, is near to the state of eternal death. The keener the pang, the

more reason one has to fall on one's knees and thank the Lord and Giver of Life whose gentle monitions still have power to turn the heart of stone into a heart of flesh. In that way redemption comes. The penitential psalms of David are full of pathetic references, now to waking and weeping in the night season, again to the peace and rest and sleep that came with the blessing of forgiveness after repentance.

THE PAUSE OF SUSPENSE.

When we have done our best to conquer worry, anxiety may still brood over us because there are factors in the case that are beyond our control; and the time has come when we must await outside developments. This pause of suspense is worry's opportunity to vanquish us. But if we can make no advance, we can at least hold our own, and verify the meaning of the phrase, "and having done all, *to stand.*" The passive strength that resists must equal the active strength that assails, which in this case we call "the stress of circumstances." It is static victory to come out of a pause of suspense as strong as we were when we went into it.

HOW TO FILL THIS PAUSE.

While the pause lasts, the best thing a person can do for his mind is to take care of his body. Mental anxiety often leads to neglect of health, and a depressed physical condition in turn reacts upon the mind. Many persons when worried or grieved retire, nominally to rest, but actually to bury hot faces in smothering pillows and weep hysterically until eyelids are inflamed, and the whole body feverish and wretchedly uncomfortable. This is the worst thing that they could do, mentally or physically. "A good cry" is now and then quite a solid comfort, as Tom Hood has declared; but only under certain conditions, and those not tragic. Rather, it is an excess of tender emotion that thus finds wholesome relief. But when assailed by stern anxieties, beware of tears. If you feel them starting, drive them back with a smile. Instead of letting sleepless worry make you ill, take a soothing, refreshing bath, and attend to every hygienic and esthetic detail of the toilet; then clothe this physical perfection of daintiness in the daintiest linen and the most stylish and becoming outer garments. The effect is conscious dignity sustained by physical presence. In thus pausing to adorn the temple, you have done honor to the soul.

To be well groomed and well dressed is one expression of that self-respect without which no character is strong. Add to the mental benefit the physical effect of the bath, and the conditions for restful sleep are largely attained. When mind and body are in a normal state, the giant worry seems to dwindle. And when, refusing to vanish altogether, it threatens you with a sleepless night, you can look it in the face and say, "I know just what you are, and the extent of your power to harass me: since you have nothing new to divulge at present, I will banish you and go to sleep." It is an audacious worry that hangs around after a philosophical dismissal.

OPTIMISM.

If anxiety is the shadow, cheerfulness is the sunshine. Though in the main, events are against us, in many details they are for us. Let us search for the blessing in disguise, and find the compensations that in some degree attend even the gravest misfortunes. Let complaint fall silent when we think of the respects in which our lives are happy and prosperous, and appreciate the mercies that outweigh these particular perplexities or losses. After a certain financial panic which drove prosperity into bankruptcy and brought sleepless care to many a home, a fragile mother who shared her husband's wakeful anxiety over the business outlook, one day glanced around her family group and suddenly exclaimed: "What a mercy it is that we are all *well*! When I look at the children, physically beautiful, mentally gifted, and all in perfect health,—why, I wonder that I ever *dare* to worry about anything else!" She had found her compensation.

Do not wait for cheerfulness to come to you of its own accord, but let plucky determination make war on despondency. For "tribulation worketh patience, and patience experience, and experience hope"—household words, familiar always; and yet, it was only the other day that it flashed upon me: hope comes *last* in the sequence, while all my life I have gone on the assumption that hope naturally came *first*; I have often idly waited for "inspiration," when I ought to have been industriously traveling through tribulation and patience and experience, to *find* the inspiration. I like the thought thus revealed; it "accounts for" the hope that we cannot get a glimpse of, when worry first overwhelms us. It is good news to hear that it awaits us, and that some gleam of its

presence will reward our first valiant effort to get beyond the cloud.

Those who, whether they take life seriously or hilariously, have this in common—a habit of meeting their own problems cheerfully—are helpful members of society. They are the people that it does you good to talk to when you are worried. Not *about* your worries; they may know nothing about your private perplexities. No remarks may be made that have any bearing upon the case; instead, there may be a striking remoteness in the topics of the conversation, oddly suggesting that there *are* other things worth thinking about. You go back to your silent self, and again meet the anxieties that are there still, just as you left them; but the stock of good cheer you have brought home with you strengthens you to answer their dolorous misgivings with a blithe volley of proverbial philosophy: Rome was not built in a day; It might be worse; The darkest hour is just before dawn; The darkest day, live till tomorrow, will have passed away; Things at their worst must mend; It is a long lane that has no turning. And, if you are worthy to listen to the sublimest comfort, to the ear of your soul will come those divinely heroic antitheses: We are troubled on every side, yet not distressed; we are perplexed, but not in despair; persecuted, but not forsaken; cast down, but not destroyed.

It is not in the power of any outside circumstance to bring desolation upon a well-balanced man or woman who keeps "a heart for any fate."

FAITH IN THE HIGHER POWER.

This appeals to those only who recognize the Higher Power. If any one who scouts this faith has read thus far, let him read no farther; for I speak to those who believe—or think they believe—in God. Faith, in general, is instinctive. It does not wait to be openly avowed. Its scope is secular as well as religious. It is the circulating medium of social life. All confidence in business depends upon its wholesome conditions. The credit of nations rests upon it; for bonds, securities, and guarantees are, by final analysis, a matter of good faith. We appoint men to positions of trust, as our agents or custodians. We board the night express and calmly fall asleep, knowing that our lives are in the hands of a score of men—engineers, switchmen, and telegraph operators—all strangers to us personally. We have no dread of burglars when our

private watchman is patrolling the immediate neighborhood. Yet we lie awake, burdened with anxiety and dread, forgetting the one great Guardian who "watching over Israel, slumbers not nor sleeps." It seems to be only in our relation to the high and mighty Ruler of the Universe that we dare to be distrustful of one upon whom we profess to rely. If we betrayed in our everyday dealings with our fellow men such utter lack of confidence as our attitude toward the Almighty expresses, it could be very properly construed as a personal insult.

The trouble seems to be that we go to extremes. Either we carry faith into the realm of ecstasy where we forget, rather than conquer, our anxieties; or we drop into harsh materialism and say with a touch of irreverence, The day of miracles is past; heaven helps him who helps himself. We fail to find that equipoise of the spiritual and the material in which we recognize the harmonious and inseparable relation between faith and works, and distinguish the point where one begins and the other ends. An attempt to make either serve the purpose of the other is a failure. Beware of trusting to providence matters which providence has plainly entrusted to you. You will be not only disappointed, but held to account for unfaithful stewardship. Some persons have such an overweening faith in providence that they calmly neglect the plainest practical duties. Such faith ceases to be religious and becomes a stupid superstition. "Man's *extremity* is God's opportunity." When every just resource of human wisdom has been applied, when nothing more can be done—for the present, at least—the hour has come for

patient waiting and trusting; and whether the sustaining power is called religion or philosophy, both mind and heart are singularly at peace,—a recompense that is known to the faithful only. This thought was forcibly impressed upon me one day. A young woman prematurely burdened with financial responsibilities was returning home after a forenoon spent in doing practically and efficiently all that she could to adjust urgent matters of business involving great anxiety and possible loss. She reported progress, and then added cheerfully, "Do you know what I was thinking over and over, as I came up the hill?—'Thus far the Lord hath led me on!'" We who were present looked into her bright face, and said nothing: words were superfluous. We all saw mirrored in those clear eyes the serene soul that—faithful always to the limit of works—in its extremity calmly awaits God's opportunity. We knew that for her no sleepless midnight would be filled with either memories or forebodings: that she would take her normal rest as a little child; for so He giveth His beloved sleep. When we cannot get this experience it is because "the world is too much with us."

I will not pursue further a line of thought that suggests a sermon—which I am not called to preach. Yet this I do know, as a practical fact demonstrated in the experience of generations of the faithful, that among all the care-environed children of earth, none at close of day throws down his load of anxiety and slumbers so restfully as he whose refuge is the eternal God, and underneath whom are the everlasting arms.

INDIVIDUALITY.

I will not strive beyond my strength
To do what other men have done,
Nor lay my yard-stick length by length
Along the life of any one.

My life shall out. What in it lies
Of hope, of strength, of sacred fire,
To make that clear to all men's eyes
Is my supreme, my sole, desire.

I am; and what I am I am,
Nor evermore could other be.
God shall not write me down a sham;
I'll own the name he giveth me.

—James Buckham.

A PINCH OF ATTIC SALT.

BY MARY E. MERINGTON.



WHEN giving a course of lectures to some women of leisure about six years ago, I strenuously urged that they should do one thing that I required from my regular classes,—learn to read the Greek alphabet. A few months later it was with no little pleasure that in reading "Sesame and Lilies" for the first time, I found Ruskin saying: "If you do not know the Greek alphabet, learn it; young or old, girl or boy, whoever you may be, if you think of reading seriously (which, of course, implies that you have some leisure at command), learn your Greek alphabet; then get good dictionaries of all these languages, and whenever you are in doubt about a word, hunt it down patiently."

At first sight this may seem to be a difficult undertaking, but in reality it is a very easy one, and it more than repays the reader's trouble. There are twenty-four letters in the Greek alphabet, and any person who can read English is already acquainted with the form of ten Greek capitals and of six of the small letters. *A, B, E, Z, I, K, M, N, O,* and *T*, are the same as ours, while *a, d, e, i, z,* and *o* are almost identical in the two languages. A child knows that the *delta* of a river is named from its likeness to *Δ*, delta, the Greek capital D; and who does not remember the words "I am Alpha and Omega, the beginning and the end," the first and the last letters of the Greek alphabet, the symbol which is so often seen in church decoration. Again, who does not at once recognize the monogram of Christ? *X* being the Greek Ch, and *P* the Greek R; Chr, the first three letters of the sacred name.

I. H. S. is usually explained as being *Iesus Hominum Salvator*, Jesus Savior of men, but it may also be *I*, the initial of the Greek word for Jesus, and *H* which is not our letter *aitch* but the Greek long E, and *Σ*, our S; the three *characters* again being the first three in the holy name. In the early days of Christianity, when an open declaration of faith was dangerous, believers used a fish as the symbol of our Lord because the Greek word for fish is *ἰχθύς* and it contains three of the letters of the name of Jesus: or, according to some authorities, because the initial letters of the phrase, *Ἰησοῦς Χριστός Θεοῦ υἱός σωτήρ* (Jesus Christ, of God the Son, the Savior)

make *ἰχθύς*. This explains the occurrence of the fish in sacred art.

By reviewing the foregoing paragraph it will be seen that the average observer is already master of twenty-two out of the forty-eight Greek characters to be studied; the other twenty-six are simple, although they do not come in the A B C order to which we are accustomed.

Γ is the third letter. Apropos of this fact it is related that an old apple-woman who kept a stand near a school in London, went to the headmaster to complain that the boys had been very rude to her and had even threatened violence. They had danced round her shouting, "At her! Beat her! Damn her! Pelt her!" Greatly shocked, the good doctor investigated the case and discovered the culprits, but dismissed them with a reproof that was contradicted by a twinkle in his eye when they owned up to "Alpha, Beta, Gamma, Delta!" as their incantation.

The apparently freakish spelling of many English words is accounted for when one remembers that the Greeks used one character where we employ two in *th, ph, ch* and *ps*; also, at the beginning of a word they combined certain consonants that we never use in that position. For instance *m* precedes *n*, as in *Μνημοσύνη*, the mother of the Muses, from whose name the word *mnemonics* is derived. Also *p* stands before *t*, as in *πτέρων*, a wing; or before *n* as in *πνεῦμα*, wind.

It is also helpful to remember that where they wrote the letter *u* we often use *y*, as in *Psyche* which in Greek requires but four letters to spell it—*ψ + υ + χ + η*.

Having mastered the preliminaries the student will find that he has opened a gate into a very *παράδεισος* (*Paradeisos*), a park, a pleasure ground of limitless extent of which he may be the *βασιλεύς* or king. For to any person of wit and imagination the words of the English language furnish an inexhaustible source of delight compared to which fiction is dry.

Most people are more or less well educated at the present day, but comparatively few are really cultured. An insight into the origin of words, an appreciation of nice distinctions of meaning, take one a step into the realm of culture. It is impossible really

to study science, to understand literature, to appreciate art, to learn geography, to remember history, even to know intelligently the tables of weights and measures, without some slight acquaintance with the roots and ultimate meanings of words; with their *etymons*. And since Greek is a mother-language, it gives the greatest grasp in the shortest time.

Science, the arts, and new inventions are constantly adding new words to the dictionary; a large proportion of these are of Greek origin, consequently the knowledge of a few roots enables a man to keep in touch with the times. *Tele*, distance; *gram*, writing; *phone*, sound; *graph*, to write; *elektron*, amber—and behold, he has a key to half the wonders of the nineteenth century.

The beauty of the study of etymons is that it leads the student so far afield, and that, if he will but see it, it sets him upon a breezy upland from which to view the panorama of the world, the pageants of history and the progress of civilization.

Gluphis, a notch in an arrow to fit a bow-string; *gluphein*, to cut; *hieros*, sacred; *hieroglyphics*, the characters engraved by priests of old; *hieratica*, that part of the papyrus which was used by the priests. What chapters of ancient history do these words discover!

Is thy name George? Then is there no book written that will answer all the questions to be put to thy first two letters. *Ge*, the earth; *georgéo*, I till the soil. We are living back in the old days of our Aryan forefathers, we are tilling the land and tending the cattle. Over us at night lies the Milky Way, the Galaxy (*gala*, *galaktos*, milk), the *Cow Path* trodden by our ancestors in their westward journeyings to the Better Land. Before us we drive the oxen till we come to the seas and waters salt; these we cross at the *Bosphorus* (*Bous* ox, *phéro*, to bear, to carry), and then we scatter over the new-found-land carrying the home terms with us, *mater*, mother; *pater*, father; *thugater*, daughter. By reedy Mincius as we journey on we spell out the *Georgics* with the Mantuan bard; we fight the dragon with the Cappadocian Saint, or *per saltum* we prattle at the knee of Sophia of Zell and grow up to bequeath pigheaded obstinacy to a man whose insanity determines the birth of that nation within whose bounds the scattered tongues of the earth are reunited.

Geometry, the measuring of the earth; he who teaches it must read in Draper's "Intellectual Development of Europe" the chapter

on the rising of the Nile before he really knows what the definition means. What will not his store of appreciative knowledge be when he has got at the true inwardness of *apogee* and *perigee*, *geode* and *geology* and all the other *ge's*!

No subject offers a more fascinating set of words to the etymologist than geography. Dislocation of names and places, and bad spelling are almost impossible when the dictionary and the atlas travel in company. *Ballein*, to throw, to hurl; Balearic Islands noted for their slingers; slingers engaged as mercenaries by Hannibal on his way through Spain to the north of Italy. Here are history and geography in a nut-shell. The *Ægean* sea, the sea of Marmora, the Hellespont, the Cyclades, Constantinople, Heliopolis, all have a story in their names.

Look at the shape of The Morea, the mulberry leaf, from *moros*, black-mulberry, and this brings to mind the *murrey* colored coats affected in the eighteenth century. A fine example of "mediation of contrasts" and the correlation of unlike entities.

Mythology is a mine of wealth to the student of any subject: the gardener finds Apollo among his *peonies*; the glassblower sees Iris in his *iridescent* bottles; Juno pours *money* into the *purse* of the capitalist; Jove tingles the nose of the chemist with *ammonia*; Mercury seals *hermetically* the cans of a salmon-tinner; Mars teaches the soldier his *martial* tread; Pluto throws *plutonic* rocks in the path of the geologist; Vulcan showers pumice from his *volcanoes*; Atlas helps the map-makers; Achilles gives a tendon to the anatomists; a piano-mover has *herculean* strength, and the Pennsylvania Railroad doorkeeper *stentorian* lungs; heroines are provided with *mentors*, and poets with *orphic* lays. In order to read English books intelligently a knowledge of Greek mythology is absolutely necessary, as witness the above words.

Why is it peculiarly appropriate to speak of the days at Chautauqua as "*halcyon days*?" Anybody who has sat by the shores of the lake should be able to answer that. Are the students there true *peripatetics*, or do they take life *stoically* as they sit in the *academy* and jot down notes dictated by *pedagogues* who come from the great *lyceums* of the west? All that the *Bishop* says may be accepted unconditionally, as he is the one person in the assembly who speaks *ex cathedra*.

It is hardly necessary to remind Sunday-school teachers of the opportunities afforded

by the names of the books of the Bible: *Genesis*, the beginning, akin to *genealogy*, *Eugene*, *homogeneous* and a score of equally familiar words. *Exodus*, the outgoing, suggestive of *synod* and *period*; *Deuteronomy*, the second statement of the law, easily leads up to Heber, the *eponymous* ancestor of the Hebrews; while *Pentateuch*, the five great books, shows an incongruous family relation with *punch*, the beverage, the *Punjaub*, land of the five rivers, and the mystic *pentagram* that is a charm against evil spirits.

Reading the beautiful legend of *St. Christopher* or the sad story of *Oedipus*, it dawns upon one that the names of old had a personal significance in them that is entirely wanting today. "*Philip*, my king," may hate a horse; *Cecilia* may be far-sighted, *Rhoda* may be a mulatto, and *Selena* a hatchet-faced shrew. Common nouns have also lost their personal peculiarities: goats no longer figure in a *tragedy*; the *apothecary* keeps but little wine; *enthusiasm* is engendered by no god within the heart, and not of necessity must the *hermit* live in a desert. Neither does the *gymnast* run naked, nor the *sycephant* blab about the cheated customs; *Corinth* grapes are Californian *currants*, and not all chalk comes from *Crete*.

But the *cemetery* is still the sieeping-place, *sarcasm* bites the flesh, and the *acacia* bears thorns; the *rhododendron* shows its rosy

petals every spring, the *syringa* bears its heavy-perfumed blossoms, and *pan-pipes* are cut from the reeds by the river; *philomel* with melody sings with her breast against a thorn and the *celandine* comes out with the swallow, as in days of yore.

Jovial men still flourish in spite of saturnine *critics*; *Zeus* and *theus* and *deus* probably survive in *Tuesday*; *parthian darts* fly over modern left shoulders, and careful printers add a *colophon* to the books they get out. *Lethargy* overcomes the Arctic explorer; sailors cover the face of one who sleeps under the moon for fear he may be stricken blind or may become *lunatic*; *noxious* vapors rise from the fen that lies under the pall of night; old Roger Ascham's *Toxophilus* finds a friend in the *intoxicated* man of today, despite the *amethyst* that the latter wears. So lives the old in the new.

The student of 1900 may dispute the statement that leisure is associated with a *school*, and will probably advise the speaker to search the Greek *kalends* for the day on which it ever was. But the same youth having ascertained that you call a three-wheeled machine a *tricycle* and one with two wheels a *bicycle* will ask for the name of that which has but one wheel. Or he may suggest that his *antagonist* shall show him the connection between his *ankle* and the *uncle* of a person who *hypotheates* his *chronometer*. Nevertheless the school was associated with leisure, despite the youth's *philippics*.

It is interesting to take Disraeli's expression, "the cynosure of the empyrean" and see what can be beaten out of it. *Cynos*, or rather *kunos*, is a dog; *oura* is a tail; *cynosure*, dog's tail. *Pyr*, or better *pur*, is fire; *empyrean*, the region of pure light and fire; the highest heaven; "the dog's tail of the highest heaven." But the dog is now known as *The Bear*, and the star in his tail is

"the stedfast starre

That was in ocean waves yet never wet,
But firme is fixt, and sendeth light from farre
To all that in the wide deepe wandring erre"—

the pole star to which the mariner lifted his eyes before the compass guided his way over the wild waste of waters. There is a world of thought and of learning shrouded in these simple and not uncommon words.

The root *kunos* will suggest *cynic*, one who snarls as a dog does; and *pur* will call up *pyrotechnics*, *pyramids*, and *purity*. *Technics* arouse a curiosity to know something of an *architect's technique* studied at a *polytechnic* institute, while the architect will in turn lead off in quest of *anarchists*, *monarchs*, *arch-*

NOTE—The Greek alphabet is here given:

Form.	Sound.	Name.
A α	a	Alpha
B β	b	Beta
Γ γ	g hard	Gamma
Δ δ	d	Delta
E ε	e short	Epsilon
Z ζ	z	Zeta
H η	e long	Eta
Θ θ	th	Theta
I ι	i	Iota
K κ	k	Kappa
Λ λ	l	Lambda
M μ	m	Mu
N ν	n	Nu
Ξ ξ	x	Xi
O ο	o short	Omicron
Π π	p	Pi
Ρ ρ	r	Rho
Σ σ (s final)	s	Sigma
T τ	t	Tau
Υ υ	u	Upsilon
Φ φ	ph	Phi
Χ χ	ch	Chi
Ψ ψ	ps	Psi
Ω ω	o long	Omega

fiends, and the glorious *hierarchy* of heaven.

Or starting again with *oura* there will be nuts to crack with the *squirrels*, for *skia* is shadow, and *oura*, a tail, and the "*sciurine* rodent" is our little friend *Shadow Tail*. But if *skia* is shadow, what means the word *sky*?

From Athens and the Acropolis to Marseilles is a far cry, and yet there is a close connection between the two cities, for the latter was settled by Greeks twenty-five hundred years ago. Nor is the Greek language alien to the French, as very little research will show. Take, for instance, *phullon*, a leaf, and it accounts for the French *feuille*, and the semi-English *feuilleton*.

Gaul has been the alembic in which numbers of Greek and Latin words have been tried down and prepared for Anglo-Saxon currency. *Fact* is the sharp Latin, *feat* the smoother word of French suavity; *legal* and *regal* smack of the Tiber; *loyal*, *leal* and *royal* of the Seine. *Ala*, a wing, is toned down to *aisle*; the needle-like *acme* of mountain height is *aiguille* in English.

The law-courts are rich in French treasures; they have *puisé*, judges; wards who are *cadets*, clerks who cry "*Oyez! Oyez!*" courts of *oyer* and *terminer*, *cestaqui* trusts, *mortgages* and *fees* and dozens of other terms that are not familiar to the laity.

In everyday life, however, are found plenty of well-known words that will serve the average student's purpose. *Portières* hang in his doorway, *tapestry* covers his chairs, and when a special meeting of his class is called he wonders what is *on the tapis*. When his sister, Mrs. *Sinclair*, *née Debevoise* comes to town he invites his chum *Pierson* with his sister *Madeleine* to meet her at a little *déjeuner à la fourchette*. The *partie carrée* goes to a famous *restaurant* where they enjoy chicken *croquettes*, *pâtés de foie gras*, *lettuce* with *mayonnaise* dressing, *pistache* cream and *demi-tasse*. After the *banquet* they go to a *vaudeville* *matinee*, and in the *foyer* of the theater see an American duchess and her *suite* on the way to their seats in the *parquette*. The performance opens with

a series of *tableaux*, which is followed by the *burlesque* of a noted singer, and the *programme* closes with a little farce. In this last the heroine is a *piquant* little *coquette* dressed in a *paduasoy* gown, who loses a *cambric* handkerchief and accuses her father's *valet* of having stolen it. The *villain* of the play rushes in with a *bayonet* and threatens the *hero*, a *jaundiced-faced* youth who is, however, a *preux chevalier* and quite equal to the occasion. He and the villain indulge in some brilliant *repartee* in which all the *bonmots* are given to the hero, greatly to the *joy* of the *galleries*. In the heat of their argument some *rouge* from the heroine's cheek, which had touched that of the hero, her *fiancé*, during a farewell *tête-à-tête* a few minutes prior to this scene, mingled with the drops that fall from the hero's brow, and gory streaks glow on his countenance. Most opportunely a friendly *surgeon* just then rushes in and espying a cambric handkerchief peeping from under the *buffet* seizes it and with it staunches the supposed wound. Meanwhile the villain who has been under *espionage* for a week and a day, is seized by a detective, who strips his *epaulets* from his shoulders and orders him to accompany him to the Old *Bailey*, where he is to suffer the *peine forte et dure* for wearing *mignonette* in his buttonhole while on dress-parade. With great *éclat* the heroine intercedes and the accused man is allowed to remain out on *parole* until it is known whether he has killed her true love or not. Just then the valet rushes in and in stumbling over the supine hero spills a bottle of *eau-de-cologne* that he is carrying; this *laves* the sanguine traces from the face of the prostrate man, and discovers him unhurt. The valet picks up the handkerchief, the hero recovers his feet, the lady swoons; the surgeon, surprised at the *dénouement*, glides off into the *coulisses*, the villain goes off in a *cab* with the detective and the curtain falls. And it is seen that the kitchen and the theater, the army and the *parlor*, all contribute their quota of French nomenclature to the muster-roll of English speech.





SETTING TYPE FOR CHUNG PAI YAT PO: CHINESE AND FOREIGN DAILY NEWS, SAN FRANCISCO.

A WESTERN VIEW OF THE CHINESE IN THE UNITED STATES.

BY J. TORREY CONNOR.



PEOPLE living in the western cities of the United States may fairly claim to know something of the Chinese. There is not a large city west of the Rocky mountains free from a "Chinatown." In San Francisco alone thirty thousand Chinamen carry on the business of life, dwelling entirely by themselves. Nowhere outside the "flowery kingdom" is one afforded a better opportunity for study of the yellow man's habits and point of view.

When compared with San Francisco's settlement, the "Chinatown" of New York is scarcely noteworthy. But in the small area bounded by Mott and Bayard streets and Chatham square seven thousand Asiatics have set up their lares and penates. Here are the joss-houses, the bazaars, the restaurants and

boarding-houses, and the opium dens that go to make up Cathay in miniature. Thirty "companies" of merchants divide among them the flourishing trade of this quarter and of outlying districts.

The Chinese settlement of Los Angeles ranks next in importance to that of New York. The former homes of the aristocracy, low-eaved adobes with narrow, barred windows, and deep, many-pillared porches, have been given over to an alien race. In the *salas* where the Picos, the Carrillos, the Sepulvedas and other Spanish grandees once made merry, Hop Sing, the "washee" man, does up the Angeleño's linen, or Wing Lee, the highbinder, plots the downfall of some rival "tong." Over the historic plaza, the center of the old-time *pueblo*, the flag of the dragon floats, where once waved

the proud and the imperial banner of Spain.

To the stranger within these gates, such quaint bits of oriental life set down in the midst of prosaic Yankee-land are interesting, chiefly from an esthetic point of view. A

lanterns. One wanders into a high-class restaurant, resplendent with gilt lacquer-work, glittering with mirrors, and fragrant with the perfume of sacred lilies, flowering in shallow bowls, and one partakes of strange dishes served upon a wonderful table of teakwood, which is only to be matched in beauty by the equally wonderful chairs of ebony, inlaid with mother-of-pearl in fanciful designs. One invades the joss-house, or place of worship, in which are shrined grotesque deities on altars richly carved, and visits the theater to make the acquaintance of Chinese Thespians.

Finally one may bargain for ivory carvings, squat teapots and embroidered crepe stuffs over the counter of the sleek merchant with a button on his cap.

Having seen "Chinatown" the sight-seer, with a superficial knowledge of the "ways that are not our ways," too often doubts not that he knows it all. If questioned as to his views on the economic and moral side of the problem offered by the presence of the Chinese in the United States, he would doubtless hold with the sentimentalists, who see in the Chinese a downtrodden, long-suffering people, bearing the yoke of race-prejudice. The truth is that the meek, inoffensive, non-resistant Chinaman whom the enthusiasts have pictured, exists chiefly in the imagination and in the decorations on tea-chests.

It is "an eye for an eye, and a tooth for a tooth" with the Mongolian. Being a fatalist, and, moreover, valuing human life slightly, his own included, he will take the most desperate chances, and is not to be

outdone in ferocity by any fighter on earth. Murder and lesser crimes are of everyday occurrence among the Chinese population, for organized bands of assassins known as highbinders prey upon the more respectable class, terrorizing the merchants, levying blackmail, and in times of war between the "tongs," or societies, killing for pay.

A company of patriots in China originated the secret society known as the highbinders more than two centuries ago, but even before branches of the society were formed in this country it had degenerated into a lawless band of freebooters. All who were hostile



A CHINESE ACTOR.

visitor spends delightful hours prowling up and down the narrow, crooked streets of the Chinese quarter, feeling himself a foreigner in his own land as he rubs elbows with wild-eyed hatchet-men, spectacled priests, painted odalisks, dirty coolies, and the Chinese "muck-a-muck" whose gorgeous raiments proclaim the man of high estate. One loiters by a balconied tenement, the interior of which is screened from view by flowering shrubs growing in huge stone jars, listening to the "plunk-plunk" of some stringed instrument, and catching a glimpse, now and then, of a piquant face between the swaying

to it suffered persecution, ruin, and in many instances, death.

Here in the United States, with little to fear from officers, most of whom are unfamiliar with the Chinese tongue, the order has increased rapidly in numbers and in power. All Chinese industries unprotected by membership in the society must yield tribute or take the consequences. Truly, the high-binder is a person to be reckoned with. The presence of this lawless element in an American city is in itself a menace to peace and order, and when other dangers threaten, when the Chinese leper may escape from his foul burrow and wander abroad contaminating everything with which he comes in contact, or when smallpox and other infectious diseases that germinate in the filth of that malodorous quarter are raging, then, indeed, do we come to a full realization of the undesirability of Mongolian neighbors.

The Chinese come from a race, the civilization of which was arrested and left at a standstill when our own was just beginning. Their customs, their modes of thought, and their ideas of ethics, differ widely from our own. Their paramount ambition is to make a fortune in America, which will enable them to return to the land of their ancestors and live out their allotted days in ease. Unlike other foreigners who come to our hospitable shores, the material from which "good citizens" are made is not to be found in this alien race. Living among us, they are not of us; for in no particular do they deviate from the customs of their forefathers, not even in matters of dress.

Chinamen are the great vegetable growers of the west. They rent a patch of ground, every inch of which is put under the highest cultivation. Working early and late, living in squalor with no thought or care for the decencies, much less the comforts, of life, in the course of time they amass what to them is a fortune, which enables them to live well in China. They work in the mines, build railroads, labor in the vineyards, in the fields and in the orchards, and for a pittance that would just enable a white man to live. A peep into the hovel of a Chinese field-hand would convince even a sentimentalist that the competition of the creature who could wallow in such a sty must

necessarily degrade labor. What chance has the white man, with a family to support, against the wifeless Asiatics who are as the plague of locusts upon our Pacific shores?

The sight-seer has explored "Chinatown," as he believes, and the picture of oriental life, bright with color of a certain pleasing quaintness, has charmed him. Come with me, and I will show you the reverse of the shield.

It is early evening, and with dirt and dinginess hidden by friendly shadows, "Chinatown," outwardly, is at its best. In the gathering dusk the lanterns that hang above every doorway, and that swing in rows upon the balconies, glow like great jewels. Under their soft light the strangely-garmented people, shuffling noiselessly to and fro in their odd, thick-soled footgear, seem like figures in a pantomime — or a hasheesh dream.

The plump brown children of the trades-



WIFE AND CHILD OF CHINESE MERCHANT.

men have not yet been tucked in their little beds, and are playing contentedly in the gutter or swarming about the doorways. Their wadded blouses are of a bright green, yellow, blue or purple, and their wide silken

trousers are reproductions in miniature of their parents' attire. They look for all the world as if they had just stepped off a fan or a tea-chest. These children, although born in the land of the free, will be sent to China to receive their education and to worship at the altars of their ancestors as soon as they are old enough,—or rather, the boys will be sent, the girls having no need of education, according to the belief.

Drifting with the human tide we come to



INTERIOR OF CHINESE GRAND RESTAURANT—SAN FRANCISCO.

a joss-house, and stay our steps to ascertain the cause of the hubbub that is going on within. Gongs are beaten vigorously to ward off evil spirits, and the putty-faced gods are lost to view behind clouds of incense, burned, so we learn, to propitiate the deities of the particular "tong" whose place of worship this is.

Beyond the joss-house we see the open door of the Chinese theater, and following the crowd find ourselves in a narrow hall that leads to the theater proper. Here, crowded upon rough benches, are Chinamen from

every walk in life. The well-to-do merchant in silken magnificence sits by the side of the toil-grimed gardener who wears the coarse blue denim of labor; and the Mongolian dandy, fresh from the hands of the barber, his neatly-braided cue sleek and shining, exchanges friendly greetings with the cook, who has laid aside his white apron to come and hear the recital of the woes of Wing Ling, the victim of the wrath of the Grand Premier. The air is thick with the smoke of cigarettes, and the din made by gongs, cymbals and shrieking fiddles is deafening.

The Chinese, like the Greeks of old, do not allow women on the stage, so men dress and play female parts in a more or less realistic manner. Their plays, which record their history, are interminable, lasting oftentimes for weeks.

Surveying the stage from the boxes above are Chinese women, the wives of the merchants. The Chinese lady has a very pink cheek and very red lips, and over the white enamel of her forehead the dark eyebrow lines are carefully drawn. The hair, intricately looped and ornamented with jeweled pins, is as sleek as pomatum can make it. A Chinaman may possess a harem of these beauties if he desires, providing he be rich enough to buy them.

Wandering out into the night we turn up an alley, passing a house of mourning. The guard is at the door to see that none but friends of the deceased are admitted, and around the bier are hired mourners that wail incessantly. Tomorrow a funeral feast will be spread on the pavement, that the departed may not hunger during his long journey.

Farther up the alley is the secret entrance to one of the largest gam-

bling dens in "Chinatown," and in the cellar beneath, the lottery dealer plies his vocation. The game of fan-tan is the favorite sport of the Chinese. They build strongholds with iron-barred doors, approached by secret passages, the entrance to which may be found in the fish market, the apothecary shop, or any other unlikely place. Here they indulge in the forbidden sport, undisturbed by forebodings of unexpected visits from the police.

In the wall above us is a grated window, and pressed against the bars is the face of a girl, almond-eyed and beautiful.



REAR OF A LAUNDRY.



TYPICAL CHINESE WOMEN.



ENTRANCE TO GAMBLING DEN.



STREET SCENE.



EXTERIOR OF A RESTAURANT.



A VEGETABLE VENDER.

SCENES IN CHINATOWN.



CHINESE FUNERAL FEAST.

The petted daughter of some wealthy Chinaman, you say? Not so. She is a mere chattel—one of hundreds of Chinese slaves, doomed to an infamous calling—to be fondled or misused, one day loaded with jewels, the next stripped and sold to the highest bidder, if it be the caprice of her owner.

A party of sight-seers, at the heels of a professional guide, is making the rounds. We will follow them down that dark passage that twists and turns in such tortuous fashion.

Suddenly we come upon a door that has been carelessly left ajar, and pushing it open we see Chinamen stretched at full length upon dirty bunks, the mouthpiece of an opium pipe between the lips or dropping from the slack hand. Eyes that are as the eyes of the dead, staring unseeingly, are upon us; foul odors assail our nostrils. We grope our way back to the street, in no wise anxious to continue exploration in this direc-

tion. Had we gone on, we might—if the guard were off duty—have seen white men and even women under the evil spell of the narcotic that destroys body and soul.

Five thousand white slaves to the oriental drug in San Francisco, and the majority own to having taken the initial whiff in "Chinatown"!

But the night is wearing on, and lest we see evil deeds done we must get us hence. The dark figure that passed us but a moment since, slipping so stealthily into the shadow of yonder alley, is a highbinder.

Having seen "Chinatown" in the sunlight and in the shadow, which memory will stay with you the longer—that of the quaint picture you saw in the morning, or that other picture, upon whose canvas you see a girl's face at a grated window, supine forms with staring eyes that see not, and a dark figure that waits in the murky depths of an alley for the unsuspecting victim?



A JANUARY NATURE STUDY.

BY N. HUDSON MOORE.

HENRY THOREAU used to keep at hand a book on natural history, and on rough winter days read therein in lieu of going forth and studying under the open sky. Reading natural history in books is prosy work compared with reading as nature sets it down. Any one with a stout heart which does not hesitate at braving the cold, and with an eye to see, may gather almost as much mat-



A WINTER BOUQUET.

Pine-cone willow gall. Oak galls. Golden-rod balls. Sponge galls, and cocoon of polyphemus moth.

ter for entertainment in January as in June.

When about to sally forth, well rubbered and so equipped that swamp and snow have no terrors, make up your mind what you will seek. Be definite; let your search be for birds, or squirrels, or cocoons, what you please, and your pains will be rewarded.

January 1 holds a position in the year granted to no other day. It is the time to begin a new record book, a journal. Not one of those dealing with good resolutions or moral reflections, but one vastly more entertaining and profitable. In this book should be noted "the punctual coming back on their due days, of the birds;" when and where in your neighborhood the first

spring flowers come out; where you find your cocoons, the dates of their coming out, and all the thousand and one facts so interesting to the student of nature. The comparison of these books from year to year is most agreeable winter work. Last year's record stimulates me with hopes of improving it by more numerous records this year.

NORTHERN SHRIKE.

January 1, 1899, was made notable by a visit from a northern shrike. This was an auspicious beginning. He was a handsome fellow with a haughty air, looking larger than his ten inches, as, perched on the very top of a tree, he swept the landscape in search of prey. Twice he uttered that harsh, unpleasant cry: but where are all the sparrows that a moment since were cheerfully picking up the bird-seed which had been scattered for their lunch? Not a feather of them is to be seen, not a chirp heard; they have completely effaced themselves in the hedge, nearby shrubs and the house eaves. He is a noticeable bird, this shrike, with clear, gray plumage pleasantly diversified with black and white markings. Because he marks for us the first day of the year we must forgive his rapacity and cruelty, his delight in killing more than he can eat, and the sight of his poor little victims hung up on thorns or sharp twigs.

OWL PELLETS.

In the crisp days of January may be found those curious formations, which, for lack of a better name, may be called "owl pellets." Owls, in common with some other birds, disgorge such portions of their food as they cannot digest. As you hold one of these odd-looking affairs in your hand for the first time, you may well be deluded into believing it a strange cocoon. Sometimes they are



OWL PELLET.

mere balls of feathers; sometimes two, or two and a half inches long, usually gray, and stuck together into quite a firm mass. One lies before me, and as I turn it over, I see

that it is composed of many feathers and numerous small bones, while protruding from the end is the beak of a small bird—some unhappy sparrow, doubtless, that as it slept was pounced upon by its wary foe. The size of the pellet shows it to have been choked up by one of our larger owls.

You may find, more often than you could imagine, some of the lesser owls near your house. In our small cities they are not at all uncommon. The pretty little saw-whet, or Acadian owl, is a confiding and sociable member of this family. You will see it at night only, and may walk under the very branch on which it is perched. While it will regard you with interest, it will not stir until you attempt to touch it. Disturbed in the daytime, it tumbles along, rather than flies, making a great deal of noise, and seeming a clumsy ball of feathers. These little birds are not so abundant as they once were. Many of them have yielded up their lives to that moloch—fashion.

CHICKADEES.

Of all our winter visitors, perhaps the chickadees are the most persistently cheerful. Neither snow nor rain discourages them, and dressed in the same modest colors as the shrike,—gray, white and black—they hunt over bark and twigs, swinging head down in the painstaking nature of their search. They do not seem to care for the choice morsel of suet dangling from the pear tree, and to hear their notes, which take on a plaintive tone in winter, I must go to the woods.

These woods are an inexhaustible source of pleasure, a "Forest of Arden." You may go there every day in the year and be rewarded. The forest itself is a thin growth of trees—oak, chestnuts, wild apple and cherry, with some scrubby water-willows. There are wild grape vines and woodbine to knot them together, and on their eastern edge a stretch of water, a feeder to the canal. It is to this combination of wood and water that the forest is indebted for its teeming bird and insect life. You may find on the outskirts of any city or town such woody growths, often in greater quantity.

COCOONS.

In January, swinging on the leafless trees, in garden, by roadsides, even on city streets, may be gathered a rich store of cocoons. Do not be deceived by the clever little mummer into thinking its snug winter home but a withered leaf or two, but touch the gray, pod-like thing. Ah, you were not deceived after all!

As you turn your cocoon over in your

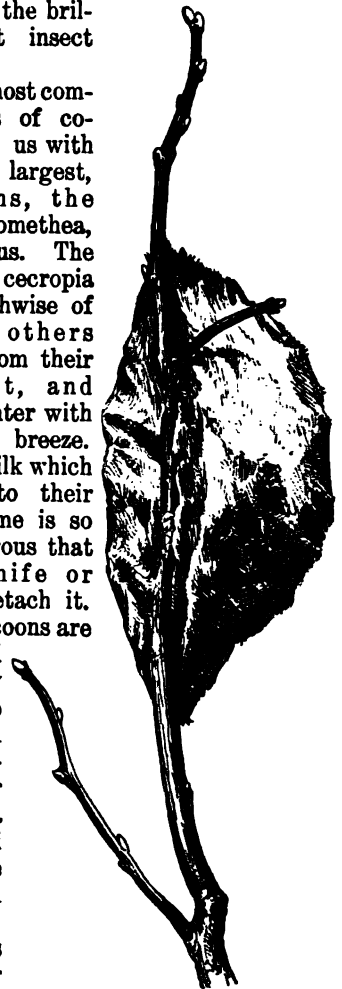
hands, it is difficult to realize all that is going on within. The protective coloring, the careful concealment within a leaf, the care with which it is moored to a place of safety, and the gradual change from the inert pupa to the brilliant, perfect insect are magical.

The three most common varieties of cocoons provide us with some of our largest, finest moths, the cecropia, promethea, and polyphemus. The cocoon of the cecropia is built lengthwise of a twig; the others hang down from their own weight, and dangle all winter with every passing breeze. The band of silk which binds them to their temporary home is so tough and fibrous that it needs knife or scissors to detach it.

If these cocoons are kept cool and occasionally sprinkled, the moths will come out during March or April. It is a wonderful sight to see the beautiful wings expand. The scales which cover them are as gorgeous as feathers. The male moth, as a rule, is the brighter in coloring, as is the male among our friends the birds.

MANTIS EGG-CASE.

This strange, yellowish case which is very common in the south is that of the *Mantis Carolinas*. It is placed upon a bush—sometimes nearly a hundred may be found close together—and this specimen was one of several gathered near a large public school. In April the insects began to emerge, forcing their way out in a sort of sheath which was then shed. More than two hundred of these curious little creatures were counted, and they became so lively and voracious that



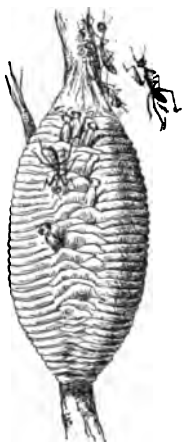
COCOON OF CECROPIA MOTH.

they had to be removed to the garden. The common name is camel cricket.

SQUIRRELS AND MUSKRATS.

As I look at the tracks in the snow I see that there are many little wood folk about. See that pile of empty shells under the oak? My old friend of last summer, the red squirrel, has been feasting on acorns and chestnuts. He may peep out if there is no noise, and one may catch a glimpse of his shrewd red face and beady eyes, and admire the graceful curve of his tail. He handles the nut with such dexterity that his forefeet seem like hands.

Following along the bank, I find the prints of active feet. Have you ever watched the muskrat, its winter haunts and habits? This is the little creature known to every farmer's lad as "mushrat,"—and hunted with traps,—steel horrors from the stores, or home-made constructions of withes and strings from which the sharp teeth of our little friend often mercifully release him. They are most entertaining creatures, having a sort of individuality about them, and seem-



MANTIS EGG-CASE.

ing to be swayed by personal preferences in the making of their homes. During the pleasant weather they live in burrows which they excavate in banks adjacent to water; but it is on their winter quarters that they expend the most elaboration. Sometimes these are cone-like structures, built of grass, rushes or twigs, plastered and strengthened with mud; a coarse looking mass of stuff on the outside, calculated to deceive the casual observer, but snug and warm and cozily lined within. They do not build these houses every year, some winters remaining content with the summer burrow.

Doubtless the food supply regulates this building matter, for muskrats do not hibernate, and are therefore not obliged to store up a large supply of food, but gather from day to day according to their necessities.

There is much legendary lore to be gathered from the "old folks" in the country about muskrats and squirrels being foretellers of the weather. An open winter will be predicted by the small store of nuts gathered by the squirrels, and the lack of building indulged in by the muskrats. This theory, however, is of the "hit or miss" pattern. It is a fact that in a very cold winter a squirrel will eat less than in a mild one. He will eat what is at hand, but rather than brave the weather in going to one of his out-door store-houses, will take another nap.

MAIDS AND MATRONS OF NEW FRANCE.

IV. THE TWO POMPADOURS.

BY MARY SIFTON PEPPER.



PRIARS, nuns, bushrangers, trading-companies, and explorers had inhabited New France for half a century, and it still remained a wilderness of savages. Little had been accomplished toward converting and civilizing these savages. The vows and prayers offered up to heaven in the early years of the missions, notably in 1634, when a nun of Montmartre was prostrated day and night before the altar praying for the conversion of Canada, had been recompensed by a large gathering of these barbarians into the folds of Christianity; but it was found that the waters of baptism had washed away little of their savagery, and that their religion was renounced readily for a piece of tobacco or a drink of brandy. Two names, those of Brebœuf and Lalemant, had been inscribed on the list of martyrs to this cause, yet the ferocious Iroquois, their

murderers, were all the time becoming more estranged from the missionaries.

The *coureurs de bois*, or bushrangers, were mingling with the aborigines and learning much that would have been useful to their compatriots on both sides of the water, but a great part of this priceless information never came to the ears of those most interested in it. The wild life of the woods had a fascination for these young adventurers, and many of them, after once adopting it, never returned to civilization. "It is easier to make a savage out of a Frenchman," writes Mother Marie Guyard in her memoirs, "than to Frenchify a savage."

In the field of exploration the glory of France was being enhanced by the discoveries of Marquette, La Salle, and others; but these men, although extending the boundaries of New France far to the west and north, were too much occupied with visions

of vast new territories to accomplish anything toward the improvement of those already acquired. Thus year followed year, and the two elements most needful to the growth of a settlement, the farm and the family, as defined by Marc Lescarbot in the introduction to this series, had not yet found a place there, while the rival colony of New England was steadily increasing in population and wealth. In 1666 there were eighty thousand people there, and only three thousand five hundred in New France.

At this time an event took place which changed the whole aspect of affairs in Canada. Louis XIV. suddenly aroused from the indifference with which he had regarded this western colony, and determined to make it a New France indeed. The energy and success with which he carried out his purpose have earned for him the title, "Father of New France."

A certain regiment of French soldiers, recruited near the little town of Carignan, had rendered themselves favorites through several successful charges they had made in one of Louis XIV.'s wars. To reward them for their services, to furnish settlers for the new colony, and incidentally to protect the inhabitants from the incursions of the Iroquois, they were sent over to Canada at different periods between 1665 and 1667, forty companies in all.

It was soon seen, however, that there was only one way that would insure the permanent residence of these soldiers in the country, and that was to have them marry. The most important factors to the execution of this plan were lacking, for the few daughters of the settlers had already fallen victims to the snares of Cupid in the form of some ambitious young trader, or had found a refuge behind convent or hospital walls.

After serious consideration it was decided to follow the example of the Virginian and New England colonies and import girls from the mother country to become the wives of these newly-arrived settlers. The king entered earnestly into the project, so earnestly that there was danger, says a critic, of depopulating Old France for the sake of providing families for the new. Every year, according to the demand, large or small consignments of damsels were sent to the colonies, who thereafter became known as "the king's girls." They performed their mission of establishing homes and families with admirable celerity, and the parish priests were kept in a continual flurry between tying nuptial knots and baptizing children. Bounties were placed upon large

families and for many successive years the population of Canada increased far beyond the hopes of the most sanguine.

But the Old World follies and vices brought over by these new importations, swaggering young soldiers who had seen life in many countries, and sprightly, coquettish maids, changed the whole nature of primitive Canadian society. Within the next half century Quebec became a miniature Paris; the simple-minded pioneer women of our first acquaintance were separated by a profound gulf of differences, religious, moral, and social, from the stately dames of this new Canadian court, who tried to rival their sisters across the sea in extravagance and prodigality, as well as in many of the corrupt practises of court life; until finally scandal and intrigue culminated in the administration of the notorious François Bigot and his partner in vice, Madame de Pean.

This "king of knaves" was one of the favorites of La Pompadour, mistress of Louis XV., and through her influence had been appointed to Quebec in 1747 as intendant or associate governor. Dishonesty in the government had been introduced into Canada long before he became one of its executives, but while his predecessors had concealed their peculations under some plausible pretext, he threw caution to the winds and engaged openly in all kinds of illegal traffic. Valuable furs were bought from the Indians, and vast quantities of wheat from the colonists, at a low price, and sold to the government he represented at a great profit; this was shared by him and his associates. One of these was Hugues de Pean, a native Canadian, who is known to posterity chiefly as the husband of the most celebrated woman in the latter days of Quebec, Madame de Pean, La Pompadour of New France. So many romantic incidents have been woven about this woman's life that it is difficult, from the meager mention of her in the historical documents of the times, to gather the real story of her life. For while the saints of these pioneer days have left authentic and in some cases voluminous records of their lives, the sinners have cared not to have their deeds perpetuated in history.

Angélique des Meloises, afterwards Madame de Pean, was the daughter of an influential citizen of Quebec, whose family name had been memorable in the annals of the colony ever since the coming of the Carignan regiment. She was educated in the institution founded by Mme. de la Peltre, where one of her aunts also had immured herself

for many years through an unhappy love affair, and had died praying for the soul of him who had deceived her. This institution was still carrying out the precept of Mother Marie Guyard by "teaching girls all they ought to know," and half the young girls of Canada were being educated in it. But it seemed that all a girl ought to know in those times was very little. Angelique came forth from the seminary a beautiful girl with a fondness for dress, a desire to be admired, and aspirations for power.

She was soon launched into the gay society of Quebec, and none of all her young associates was gayer or more charming than she. Even the dry historians of those days characterize her as "lively, witty, mild, and obliging, and her conversation amusing." She was tall, with bronze gold hair, a fair complexion, and magnetic eyes which had a wonderful power over those whom she wished to attract. In truth, she had all the graces of the beautiful French woman of the world. A recent novelist,¹ who makes her the heroine of a brilliant romance, has pictured her to his readers in the zenith of her youth and beauty. She is leaning over the balcony of a fine old mansion, arrayed in the Parisian finery brought over in the last ship. Decked with dazzling jewels, surrounded by a bevy of Quebec's fair daughters, she sat there summer evenings, meeting with an answering smile those of the gaily-attired young cavaliers who passed with clanking swords down the roughly-paved and narrow thoroughfare.

Many of these young gallants, rich, handsome and well-born, were her declared suitors. The favored one was the young Seigneur de Repentigny, whose family name dated back to the very earliest days of Quebec. The story of his ardent wooing, his wild revels, his jealousy and the tragic dénouement brought about through the coquetry of this capricious beauty, whose ambition had assumed the form of an intrigue with the intendant Bigot, have been depicted by the novelist in thrilling and realistic language. Her hand was finally conferred upon Hugues de Pean, who was then secretary to Bigot.

Not long after his marriage to Angelique des Meloises, Monsieur de Pean engaged in a transaction which made him immensely rich. Money was advanced to him by his chief from the public treasury, and with this he purchased great quantities of wheat from the surrounding farmers. This was sold to the government at a profit, and De Pean

became one of the wealthiest men of Quebec. François Bigot became a daily guest at his home, and the highest dames of Quebec, however rebellious, were made to bow down before the fair Angelique as their leader. The old mansion which he gave her about this time still exists, and when tourists direct their steps to 59 St. Louis street they will see a house made memorable by the downfall of a beautiful woman, and, indirectly, the ruin of a colony.

Madame de Pean drew lavishly on the purse of the intendant, or, in other words, upon the treasury of New France, and for many years lived in pomp and luxury equal to that of her rival across the sea. But, though she could command the purse of the erratic Bigot, she could not command his fickle affections, and a rival at Beaumanoir, his castle in the woods, made her heart burn with jealousy, and, it is whispered, caused her to stain her hand with blood.

Five miles away, near the little village of Charlesbourg, there was a lonely building which Monsieur Bigot called his hermitage. He was wont to go with a party of boon companions to hunt in the neighboring forests and return to the "Hermitage" at night. Wild scenes of revelry took place in this thick-walled, solitary building, though little is known of their character, for the life led in this retreat is veiled in mystery. An episode which appears persistently on the pages of history, and yet is more mysterious and unauthenticated than all the rest, is that of the murder of the Indian girl Caroline.*

The intendant was one day following an old bear in the vicinity of Beaumanoir, and in his quest was led over hills and through ravines, on and on, until he found himself separated from his companions. Eagerly he sought a path that would lead him out of the labyrinth, but in vain. Realizing that he was lost, he stood pondering over his luckless position, when his alert ear detected the sound of footsteps near him. A slight and graceful woman stood before him, with raven tresses, eyes black as night, a delicate skin, and arrayed in a garment of spotless white. It was an Indian girl, but her fair skin betrayed a mixed origin. An errant Acadian baron, descendant of one of those referred to in the story of Lady La Tour, had been her father, and a daughter of the Algonquins her mother. Struck by her wonderful beauty, Monsieur Bigot asked her to show him the way to the castle. Thus

*The story of Caroline is taken from a French writer, who is supposed to have heard it from the lips of his grandfather.

¹ William Kirby, in "The Golden Dog."

occurred the first meeting between the beautiful Caroline and the French intendant.

Soon whispers of the presence of a fair Indian maiden at Beaumanoir reached the ears of the people of Quebec, and among others those of the "sultana," Madame de Pean. One night, when the hall clock in the great castle had just struck eleven, and silence reigned throughout the place, the Indian girl's room was burst into, a masked person stood at her bedside, and without a word plunged a dagger into her heart. Uttering a piercing shriek, the victim leaped into the air and fell heavily upon the floor. The intendant rushed upstairs, raised the dying girl, who pointed to the weapon still in the wound and then expired. Some of the inmates of the house fancied they had seen the figure of a woman rush down the secret stairs and disappear, but a profound mystery surrounds the tragedy to this day. Caroline was buried in the cellar of the castle and the letter "C" was engraved on the tombstone. This monument to an ill-starred love in Quebec's days of chivalry remained until less than half a century ago, but now nothing but a heap of ruins covered with weeds and rank grass recalls to the eye of the tourist the tragedy of Beaumanoir.

The death of the hapless Caroline was never publicly investigated. The "king of knaves" dared not have his dark deeds exposed to the light. For ten years he and Madame de Pean continued their career.

Bigot was passing the evening with Madame de Pean, when the despatches were brought announcing that the English were at the gates of Quebec. The noble Montcalm had struggled in vain against the ruinous administration of him and his associates, and had turned away in disgust from the artificiality and corruption which they had introduced into the society of the colony.

The meeting of the two heroes, Montcalm and Wolfe, on the Plains of Abraham, is too well known to need repeating here. Supported by two soldiers on either side of his horse, the dying Montcalm passed through one of the city gates on his retreat from the victorious English. "My God!" cried one of a group of women within the gate, waiting for news of the battle, "My God! the Marquis is killed!" "It's nothing, it's nothing," replied Montcalm, "don't be troubled for me, my good friends."

The next evening a sorrowful escort of soldiers marched up the narrow streets of Quebec bearing the body of their chief to the chapel of the Ursuline seminary on Parloir

street. There it was deposited in a large cavity made in the floor by an exploding English bomb. There may be seen today the memorial slab which marks the resting-place of one whom fate had destined to be the last worthy representative of a great kingdom in America.

After the fall of New France the infamous Bigot returned to the motherland. Here he was thrown into the Bastille on a charge of complicity in its ruin, and remained there for eleven months. His trial in 1763 attracted the attention of all Europe, and with the others connected with his frauds, lasted three years. He escaped with a light sentence of banishment to Bordeaux, where he passed the rest of his life in ease and comfort. Major Pean, his tool, was obliged to make a restitution to the French government of six hundred thousand francs.

And the fair Angelique, having discarded both her husband and her lover on hearing of their downfall, was left behind in the Quebec now filled with the English conquerors. She would fain have crossed the sea also, to take up her residence under the very shadows of the palace of Versailles, there to become the rival of La Pompadour herself. But the latter hearing of her intentions, determined to thwart her in this ambition, for rumors of the allurements of the Quebec siren had long since reached her ears. She forbade her to cross the boundaries of France, threatening, if her commands were disregarded, to have her imprisoned. Angelique was obliged to tarry in Quebec, where she shone on in undiminished splendor and magnificence until within two decades of the nineteenth century.

Louis XV. is said to have slept peacefully after ceding to the king of England, at Madame de Pompadour's instigation, the "few acres of snow," known as New France. The pious missionaries, who made the first white man's tracks in its forests; the hardy Champlain and his long line of successors in the eternal warfare of civilization against savagery; the intrepid explorers who opened a vast continent to future generations of Americans; the dogged settler who hewed his way into a home through snow and ice and the insurmountable obstacles of a northern wilderness; and lastly, the groups of pioneer women who made civilized life a possibility in this land of barbarism; these, too, slept on peacefully in their graves. Their lives were monuments in themselves, their deeds commemorative inscriptions which no temporal change in the land could efface.

The RIVALRY of NATIONS

WORLD POLITICS OF TODAY

By Edwin A. Start

[Chapters I.-IV. appeared in the October issue. The first was an introductory discussion of the significance of the present age, the expansion of the nations, the industrial revolution, the growth of democracy, and the world problems resulting from the interplay of these elements. Chapter II. explained the politics of Europe in the middle of the century, as turning upon the ideas of nationality and the revolutionary democracy; with the Eastern question as shaped in the Crimean war. In Chapters III. and IV. the development of England and France respectively in the last half century were traced, with especial reference to the rise of English democracy and the growth of republican government in France.]

Summary of Preceding Chapters.

[Chapters V.-VIII. in the November number considered in a similar way the other four great powers of Europe, Germany, Italy, Austria-Hungary, and Russia.]

[Chapters IX.-XI., in the December number, dealt with the question of the near East. Chapter IX. described the reopening of the Eastern question after 1871; explaining the relations of Russia and Turkey and the status of the Turkish empire and the Balkan and Danubian provinces. Chapter X. discussed the developments from 1871 to the Russo-Turkish war of 1877-78, the results of the war and the treaty of San Stefano, and Chapter XI. the resettlement of the Eastern question by the Congress of Berlin, the resulting conditions, and the effect upon Russian policy.]

CHAPTER XII.

THE BALKAN PENINSULA SINCE 1878.

Required Reading for the Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle.



THE acceptance of the decrees of the Congress of Berlin was indeed bitter medicine for Russia. It had thrown all its energies into a daring move to sweep away the recognized evils of the Ottoman rule and to obtain such incidental advantages as might accrue from success.

In the moment of victory it was balked by the very powers whose policy, certainly as selfish as its own, had allowed to exist the evils it had tried to destroy. Against England, Germany and Austria-Hungary the government of the tsar had grievances not easily set aside: against England for its active support of the Porte and its insistence in hampering Russia's free action; against Austria-Hungary on similar grounds, and because like England it had been willing to profit by the opportunity that Russia's war had made; and against Germany because in the Congress of Berlin it had failed to give support to the Russian demands. The way was thus prepared for the development of friendly relations between Russia and France, the only power whose interests for the time being did not clash with those of the country of the tsar, and which had not given cause for unfriendly feeling. With the new states of the Balkan peninsula Russia's relations were equally strained. It had aspired to a hegemony over the liberated people, and it found them intractable. Roumania had never been a favorite with Russia, for it was a non-Slavonic state, interposed between Russia and the Slavs farther south. Furthermore, Roumania had done efficient service in the field and felt that Russia had ill repaid it by the requirements made in the way of the passage of troops and other settlements growing out of the war, but particularly in the grasping of Bessarabia, which was desired by Roumania as a natural part of its own dominions. Serbia, too, ambitious for the restoration of a power lost long ago, but not forgotten, felt that even at San Stefano it had been neglected by Russia, after it had thrown itself almost single-handed into the struggle which gave Russia its opportunity. Serbia had borne the burden and heat of the struggle for liberation, and its reward had been small.

Russia's disappointment.

Strained relations with the powers.

New Balkan states intractable.

And Bulgaria, that was to have been Russia's right hand in the peninsula, with ports on the Black sea and the Ægean which would have been always open to its great and good friend? Hardly had the ink dried on

Nationalism in Bulgaria.

the Berlin parchment before the independent spirit of Bulgaria asserted itself. Electing as its prince Alexander of Battenberg, 'it began to develop a distinct national policy, seeking the friendship of Russia, but nothing more. When Gortschakoff's agents sought to build up a Russian party among the Bulgarians they found themselves confronted by a sturdy patriotic party, led by the prime minister, Stambuloff, to which Prince Alexander gave his support. The union with Eastern Roumelia and the war with Servia were referred to in the last chapter. When Prince Alexander, who had labored honestly and bravely to bring about harmony with Russia without sacrificing his people, found that Russian enmity was pursuing him remorselessly, he resigned his office for the good of the country. With the little principality of Montenegro alone has Russia maintained relations of mutual regard.

Course of
Alexander III.

The attitude of these states was a disappointment to Alexander II., and the cause of undying resentment in Alexander III., who sought by all the resources of diplomatic intrigue and the bullying which Russia's position made possible, to recover its predominance, but without success. This course generated in turn an increasingly strong feeling on the part of the nationalists in the Balkan and Danubian states. Greece had never met with much sympathy from the tsar's government, which reserved its interest for the Slavonic peoples and had no desire to see a redeemed and reunited Hellas that might aspire to a restoration of Greek rule in Constantinople.

The Congress and
European alliances.

The Congress of Berlin destroyed all prospect of an alliance between the three empires, which had always been a personal, rather than a national project, and left the field open for the formation of the Triple Alliance—Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy—in 1883. The overtures toward closer personal relations between Germany and Austria began in 1879, when Austria was extending her influence in the Balkan states and making for herself a commercial route to Salonica. This meant a conflict with Russian policy, and in 1879 a defensive alliance was made between the two powers in the case of attack on either by Russia. The threatening attitude of Russia in Poland, the French feeling toward Germany, and the increasingly close relations of France with Russia, added in 1879 to the chances of war against which this alliance was to guard. Meanwhile the new colonial interests of France and Italy in Africa were causing friction between those states; and Italy, desirous of support in case of trouble with France, and also because of the continued hostile attitude of the pope, sought a closer understanding with Austria and Germany and finally asked to be admitted to the defensive alliance. Thus was formed this alliance of the states of middle Europe, for defensive action in case of the disturbance of the European peace by Russia and France.

England's isolation.

England was left in "splendid isolation," where it has since remained, having no friend upon whom it can count in the European concert. Holding Gibraltar, Malta, and Cyprus, and possessing the most powerful navy in the world, it is a Mediterranean power of the first magnitude, but ceaseless vigilance and a steady hand are necessary to guide its foreign relations in safety. For a time under the Gladstone administration it showed a healthy dislike for its old protégé, the Ottoman government, but the return of the Conservatives to power under Lord Salisbury restored in a measure the old policy, and when the supreme test of the Armenian massacres came Great Britain found itself restrained by too many nets of policy resulting from its isolation to take any effective action in maintenance of the guaranties of 1878.

The Balkan and
Danubian states.

The Balkan and Danubian states themselves have been passing through a most interesting period of national development, demonstrating their fitness for the powers of self-government that have been intrusted to them. For a dozen years after the Berlin Congress a favorite project in these states was the formation of a Balkan confederation, in which

Bulgaria, at least, was willing to include Turkey. A Bulgarian, writing to an American newspaper in 1892 of the political disorders then prevailing in his country on account of the hostility between the nationalist and Russian parties, made a statement which throws considerable light on this feeling toward Turkey. He said:

Bulgaria and the
Turks.

"Turkish oppression is not so much a systematic tyranny of a strong government over a weak nation as the want of a government. Their oppression lies in the fact that the petty rulers, or even the ruling Turkish race at large, are unrestrained in their capricious dealings towards the 'infidel subjects.' Often these dealings have been very humiliating to the unprotected subjects, yet be it said to the credit of 'the unspeakable Turk,' that, as a race, they have been kind, and showed more respect to the religious and national rights of their subjects than perhaps any other conquering nation."¹

The article from which this quotation is made was written in a somewhat strongly partisan spirit, and seems to attribute to the goodness of the Turk some forbearance that really arose from the weakness of the Ottoman state, but there is in it, nevertheless, a large measure of truth, and it is this which made it possible for the independent spirits among the Balkan statesmen to look upon the Porte as a possible ally in the hoped-for confederation. Another project in this connection, resting upon the possible exclusion of the Turks from Europe and a division of their territory, has been the creation of Constantinople as the federal capital. The real obstacle in the way of the proposed confederation is the peoples of the several states, who are unable to put aside ancient rivalries. Greece and Bulgaria both wish to secure Macedonia, and regard it as belonging to their national territory; and this difference has proved an irreconcilable barrier to their agreement. In fact, the relations between the Balkan states are much the same as those between the great powers of Europe, and agreement between them is equally difficult, while the principle of the balance of power is as likely to be invoked in the one case as in the other to check growing ambitions on the part of any one of the group. For the last few years little has been heard of the project of confederation and each state has developed along its own lines. The Greek war with Turkey for the liberation of Crete showed the lack of cohesion among the former provinces of the Porte. At first there was rumor of a Balkan alliance against Turkey, but, instead of this, the other states looked coldly on while Greece received its punishment.

Obstacles in the
way of Balkan
confederation.

Russia's changed attitude since the accession of Nicolas II. has made a marked difference in Balkan politics. Alexander III., whose reign showed a certain bitterness, perhaps due to the circumstances of his accession, refused to accept as final the exclusion of Russia from paramount influence at the south, and sought in every way known to Russian diplomatic intrigue to maintain through pro-Russian parties in the several states that influence which the Congress of Berlin and the patriotic spirit of the liberated nations refused to concede. The result was political turmoil in the Balkan states themselves, distracted by foreign political activity, and a state of nervous tension in Europe on account of the disturbances which seemed likely to revive at any time the old Eastern question in an acute form. This policy was very likely due in great measure to Gortschakoff, who was never reconciled to the check put upon Russia by the diplomats at Berlin. At the same time the policy of Alexander III. was consciously and sincerely directed to the preservation of European peace which it was distinctly Russia's interest to maintain. It cannot be said, however, that Russia gave up during this reign its historic policy of seeking possession or control of the regions between it and the seas at the south. Bismarck in his autobiography gave a forecast of Russian policy in the future, with especial reference to German relations, which is entitled to consideration in view of the source from which it proceeded, although later events have placed it in abeyance, if they have not actually

Change of Russian
policy under Nicolas
II.

¹ E. S. Yovtcheff in *Boston Evening Transcript*, 1892.

substituted for it an entirely different national career. Bismarck's outline of Russian policy was as follows:

Bismarck's forecast of Russian policy in the nearer East.

"When Russia considers herself sufficiently armed — and for this an adequate strength of the fleet in the Black sea is requisite — then, I think, the St. Petersburg cabinet will act as it did in 1833 at the treaty of Unkiar-Skelessi; it will offer to the sultan to guarantee to him his position in Constantinople and in the provinces which remain to him on condition that he will give to Russia the key to the Russian house — that is to say, the Black sea — in the form of Russian control of the Bosphorus. It is not only possible, but, if the affair is cleverly managed, it is probable that the Porte would agree to a Russian protectorate in this form. In former years the sultan could believe that the jealousy of the European powers would give him guarantees against Russia . . . but Gladstone's public utterances have deprived the sultan of this support not only in London, but also in Vienna. . . . As things are at the present time it is not probable that the sultan expects from England or Austria as much assistance and protection as Russia could promise without surrendering her own interests and in virtue of her proximity successfully afford."

Bismarck further expressed the opinion that it would be to the advantage of Germany for Russia to be established at Constantinople, in that it would simplify the Eastern question, and bring to an end the demands of England and Austria upon Germany to check Russian lust after the Bosphorus. As has been said, with the accession of Nicolas II. a marked change was shown in Russian relations. Discarding altogether the rancor of his father, while maintaining the general principle of his peace policy, the present tsar has apparently accepted the Berlin settlement as a final negative of Russia's contention in the direction of Constantinople, has ceased to interfere in the internal affairs of the Balkan states, and has turned his attention toward the development of the vast Asiatic domains of his empire. English control in Egypt, the Suez canal, and the startling developments in the Pacific have made the question of the control of Constantinople one of minor importance for the time being at least.

Germany's new interest in Asiatic Turkey.

Austria's commercial stake.

A notable development in the Eastern question within recent years has been the growth of Germany's interest therein. Bismarck's idea that Germany had no interest in the Eastern question has been reversed by Emperor William, who has shown in many ways a marked friendship for the sultan, refusing to interfere in behalf of Greece in 1896, or to interpose in the Armenian troubles. The somewhat dramatic visit of Emperor William to the Holy Land in 1898 when he was received with due honors in Constantinople, was not entirely a bit of parade, but had another and very practical object, that is, to look after the growing German interests in Asia Minor and Syria. Austria, too, has a very practical stake in the Balkan peninsula. Turkey buys far more heavily of Austria-Hungary than of any other country, except Great Britain. Austria-Hungary leads all nations in trade with Bulgaria, stands a close second to Germany in trade with Roumania, and practically controls the commerce of Servia, furnishing more than one-half of the imports, and buying four-fifths of the exports. For political reasons which have been analyzed, and for these very important commercial considerations, it is for Austria's interest to allow no paramount influence by a great power in the Balkans.

Development of the new states.

Roumania.

The last few years have been years of prosperous and healthy development for the most part in the new Balkan states. They are all agricultural nations, from two-thirds to four-fifths of the population being engaged in agricultural pursuits. Roumania has pursued a steady course of internal improvement, building a system of railroads, and otherwise developing the country. The debt has increased, but the expenditure has been for these valuable internal improvements, which are strengthening the country and its credit. There has been aroused in the Roumanian people by the teaching of their history a strong sense of nationality, and the most critical question in their politics is that which comes from the national party which seeks to unite all the Roumans, of whom there are

two and a half million in Hungary and Transylvania, half a million in Bessarabia, and two hundred thousand in Bukovina. This, of course, is the cause of some friction with Austria-Hungary and Russia.

Bulgaria has always been the storm center of the southeast, because of Russian attempts to control its affairs. At the Constantinople

Bulgaria.



conference of the powers in 1885, after the union of Bulgaria and Eastern Roumelia, Russia showed an entire change of policy toward the Balkan states, and England had likewise swung over. At this time it was Russia that supported the Porte, while England took a firm stand for the integrity of united Bulgaria. From 1887 to 1891 there was a renewed period of Russian intrigue in Bulgaria, which was met by similar methods on the part of Stambuloff, who practically suspended the constitution and inaugurated a reign of terror. He succeeded in stamping out the Russian party and retained control until 1894, when Ferdinand revolted against his arbitrary minister and reestablished a constitutional system. Stambuloff was assassi-

EMPEROR WILLIAM
OF GERMANY.

nated in 1895, and left few mourners among the Bulgarian people. Indeed, his assassination has never been punished. Since his removal the country has enjoyed a more healthful development and its prosperity has been steadily increasing. Servia has been less fortunate than Bulgaria and Roumania in her development. This has been due in part to the lamentable weakness of the royal family, and in part to the apparent unfitness of the Servian people as yet for popular government. Austrian influence in Servian affairs has also had an unhealthful effect. Montenegro, settled among its rugged hills, too small and poor to excite the cupidity of greater powers, has enjoyed, under perhaps the most absolute personal rule in Europe, general domestic quiet.

Servia, Montenegro
and Greece.

The vicissitudes of the Greek democracy have been many. Restless, ambitious, and showing many of the political weaknesses of the ancient Athenian democracy, the Greeks learn but slowly the hard lessons of modern political life. The affairs of Greece have been complicated by its close connection with Crete, which has been in a constant state of unrest for over eighty years. The promised application of constitutional government to Crete in 1868 by Turkey was as unproductive of good results as other Turkish reforms, and the government of the Ottoman officials produced a revolt



ARMENIAN
MOUNTAINEER.
(From the *London
Illustrated News*.)

AN OUTPOST OF
ENGLAND'S POWER
— MALTA.



Cretan complications.

in 1889, when the island was only saved from Turkish military control by the intervention of the powers. The revolt broke out anew in 1896 and produced in Greece a frantic outburst of pan-Hellenism. The Greeks insisted upon giving assistance to their Cretan compatriots, and again the powers found it necessary to hold in check the hot temper of the Greeks. Greek restlessness on the Turkish frontier led to the outbreak of war with Turkey, and there followed that singularly ill-judged and unfortunate campaign, so costly and so profitless for Greece. Crete, however, secured through the action of the European concert an autonomous government under the suzerainty of the Porte, and after two years of discussion Prince George of Greece was appointed high commissioner at the head of the Cretan government, the appointment being approved by all the powers, and a complete new constitution was put into effect in 1899.

Armenia.

STEPHEN NICOLOF
STAMBULOFF, BUL-
GARIAN STATESMAN.
BISMARCK OF THE
BALKANS.

Another center of disturbance in the Ottoman dominions has been Armenia, and Armenian traders and artisans are so distributed that their political activity is not confined to their own national home. During the eighties an Armenian national party was gradually formed, and in 1890 troubles arose between the Armenians and the barbaric Kurds. The acts of the Armenians were skilfully represented by the Porte to be a rebellious movement, and in 1894 and 1895, under pretense of suppressing this movement, terrible Armenian massacres took place under government orders, carried out by Turkish troops, regular and irregular. The Armenian agitation being national in its character took in the inhabitants of Russian as well as of Turkish Armenia. Hence Russia in this affair was on the side of Turkey, while England, under the influence of its reaction of feeling, sought to have





PORT SAID — EN-
TRANCE TO THE
SUEZ CANAL.

Europe impose reforms upon the sultan. Russia, supported by France, opposed any intervention, and Austria and Germany, being desirous at the time of avoiding any difficulties in the East, held aloof. A Russian diplomat is reported to have said in explanation of the Russian position: "We do not wish to have Armenia made a second Bulgaria." As England did not dare to act alone, the persecution of the Armenians went unpunished, although the facts were known to all the world.

Since 1890, Abdul Hamid, who had previously shown himself so compliant with English advice, has turned to Russia and France as the more effective support, thereby justifying the prophecy of Bismarck which was quoted above. Germany's influence at Constantinople has also been strong. Within the last three or four years Russia has come to a better understanding with Bulgaria, and with the English influence eliminated a return of Russian predominance in the Balkans might be possible, if a clash with Austria and with Germany could be avoided.

The sultan's change
of front.

CHAPTER XIII.

THE GATE OF THE ORIENT.

Important as it is to the relations of two continents, the Bosphorus is no longer the key to the Eastern question. There are even Englishmen who believe that Constantinople has ceased to be of importance to Great Britain since that power became established in Egypt, where its hold is likely to be long maintained. The new gate of the Orient is the Suez canal, which is used more largely by English commerce than by that of any other nation; and while the canal is neutralized by international agreement, it has already been shown that the agreement will hold only so long as military necessity does not require its control by fleets and armies. So long as Great Britain commands the valley of the Nile and the approaches to the Suez canal, it holds its own key to its oriental and African dependencies. The oldest of civilized countries is today the most important strategic factor in the problem of the nearer East. The establishment of English influence in the land of the Pharaohs is an interesting chapter in recent history. It has been accomplished with singularly little objection on the part of

England and Egypt.

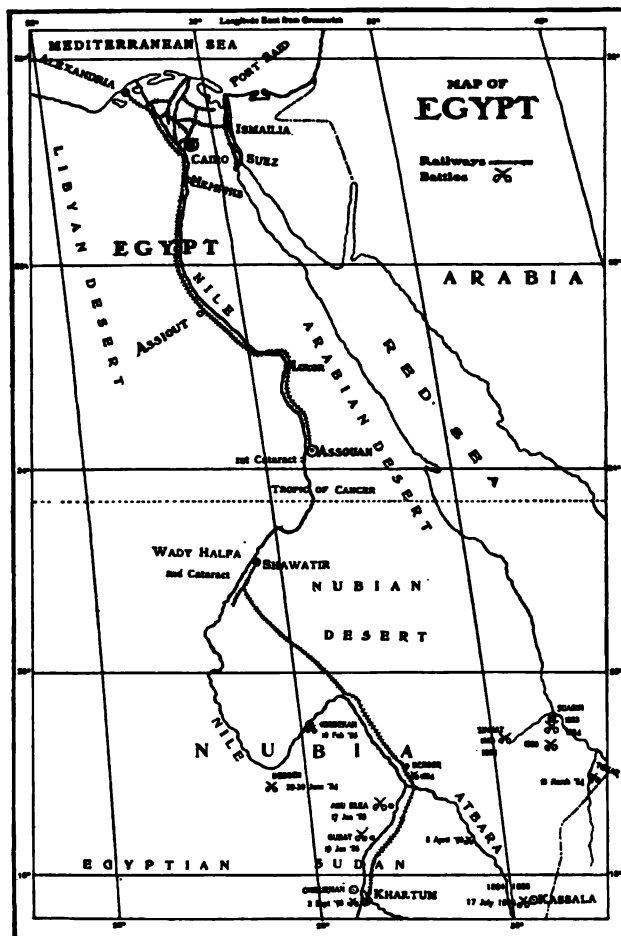
The line of Mehemet Ali.

Khedive Ismail.

MAP OF EGYPT.

the other powers, and offers in the excellence of the results accomplished by it one of the brightest pages in the history of English operations abroad. The present dynasty of Egypt dates from 1811, when Mehemet Ali, an Albanian officer serving in Egypt, took advantage of the disordered condition of affairs in that province of the Ottoman empire, and by a skilful intrigue secured popular support and was finally commissioned vali or viceroy by the sultan. Mehemet Ali was a man of the most revolting treachery and cruelty, but an exceedingly able administrator. He developed the resources of Egypt, improved Alexandria and Cairo, and established a system of government, such as it was, which has remained the form of Egyptian administration until the changes of the last few years. His successors in his family have none of them shown the ability which characterized him. The first of these successors to receive the title of khedive, which signifies a position slightly less than that of royalty, was Ismail, a grandson of Mehemet Ali, who became viceroy in 1863, and was commissioned as khedive in 1866. The Suez canal had been begun under his predecessor, Said, and was opened during his reign in 1869. His chief distinction was the building up of an enormous debt,

due to reckless extravagance and bad financial management, which has been the problem of European financiers since his day. Egypt's foreign debt began to accumulate in 1862 and increased rapidly, until in 1875 the khedive found himself obliged to make an appeal for outside aid. This appeal came easily, for ever since the rise of Mehemet Ali, the condition of Egypt, as the chief province of the Ottoman empire, had been cause for solicitude and occasional interference by the powers interested in the Eastern ques-



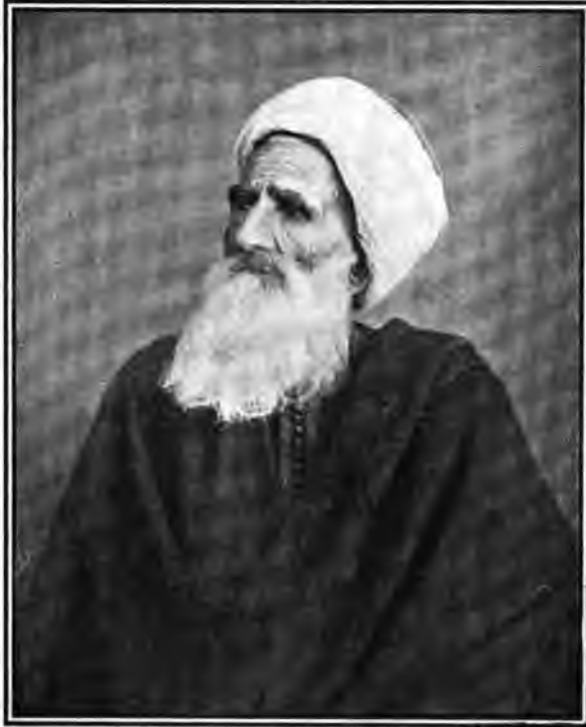
Egyptian debt.

tion. By advice of France, the Egyptian liabilities were now consolidated into one debt of ninety-one million pounds; but the continued inability of the khedive's government to meet its obligations made necessary several readjustments between 1876 and 1893. Since

that time the reorganization of Egypt under British control has restored it to a solvent condition. England was prompt to seize the opportunity presented by the necessities of the khedive, and purchased from him on the 25th of November, 1875, for four million pounds, 176,602 shares of Suez canal stock, nearly one-half of the total capital of the company.¹ English capital was already interested in the railroad from Cairo to Suez, which had been projected by George Stephenson, and erected in 1858. This railroad carried the Indian and Australian mails overland.

England and the
Suez canal.

England's large interest in the canal is one of the accidents of her policy. When the canal was first discussed, England opposed the whole scheme on the ground that its construction was impracticable and that it would interfere with British supremacy in oriental trade. Stephenson was the English representative on the international commission to measure accurately the levels of the Mediterranean and the Red sea. The commission found the same mean level but differed as to the feasibility



ORIENTAL TYPE—
A CAPTAIN OF A
DAHABIYEH.

of a canal. Stephenson opposed it and offered as a counter project his railroad, which was constructed. Not until the canal was finished did England begin to look upon it with favor. The English flag was most in evidence in the marine procession which celebrated the opening, and an English vessel was the first to pay the canal tolls and pass through in the regular course of business. Now the English government is the largest owner in the canal, and England is its heaviest user. In 1898 there passed through the canal 3,503 vessels, with a tonnage of 12,962,632, and 219,671 passengers. Of these vessels 2,295, with a tonnage of 8,691,093, were British, this aggregate being approached by no other nation.

But its association with the Suez canal was not the only accident which drew Great Britain into Egyptian affairs. The development of British policy has always proceeded very much by accidents, which offer entirely logical sequences when the series is viewed as a whole, and the development of British power in Egypt is a striking case in point. When the extravagance of Ismail made necessary his appeal for assistance, that assistance naturally came from the two strongest financial powers, France and Great Britain, which had for many years been more interested in Egyptian affairs than any others. The impossibility of making any

Development of
British influence in
Egypt.

¹ Two hundred million francs, equivalent to forty million dollars, or eight million pounds. The English holding is estimated to be now worth about fifteen million pounds.

Tewfik and the
nationalists.

Revolt of Arabi.

EGYPTIAN SOLDIERS,
A PRODUCT OF
ENGLISH RULE IN
THE LAND OF THE
PHARAOHS.



Bombardment
of Alexandria.

permanent settlement of the Egyptian finances while Ismail remained in power, led to an appeal to the sultan as the suzerain of the khedive, resulting in the deposition of Ismail, who went into exile at Constantinople, where he died in 1895. He was succeeded by his eldest son, Tewfik. When the latter became khedive much of the power belonging to the office had been taken by the official guardians of Egypt. The army had been reorganized by American officers brought in by Ismail, the finances of the province were in the hands of French and English comptrollers, and there was a strong sentiment on the part of many of the more bigoted Mohammedans which was voiced in the watchword of a new party, "Egypt for the Egyptians." Tewfik, a really amiable and well-intentioned ruler, became unpopular, because of his willingness to assist and support the foreign officials. The revolt came finally from the

army, under the leadership of an officer named Ahmed Arabi. Arabi was a natural intriguer. Taking advantage of the sentiment just referred to, he gradually built up a strong following, and, playing with the weakness of the khedive, secured considerable influence. Interference finally became necessary in the interest of the foreign creditors, to whom Egyptian affairs were of the greatest importance. Arabi believed himself strong enough to resist the naval and military power of France and Great Britain. Had he been a braver, wiser leader, the revolt might have produced other results, for there was some justice in the appeal of the Egyptians against the financial burdens and foreign domination that had been fastened upon

them by the extravagance of their rulers; but Arabi was a cowardly, egotistical conspirator, and he failed, though in his failure he changed history for Egypt and the British empire. In May, 1882, the disorders caused by the attitude of Arabi and his followers led the foreign consuls to announce the coming of a French and British fleet to Alexandria to demand the disbanding of the army and the punishment of the troublesome leaders. The warning was followed by action. The sultan was appealed to and endeavored to intervene, but Arabi went on strengthening the fortifications of Alexandria and this, with the disorders in the city, hurried matters to a crisis. On the 9th of July the English admiral, Seymour, gave notice that unless the forts were surrendered to the English, he should open fire on the following day. The threat was carried out. The French fleet, not being authorized to go to the extent of open warfare, had left for Port Said. The British bombardment was most effective and destructive. On the 12th. Alexandria surrendered, but was not turned over to the British until it

had been given over to fire, plunder and massacre. England had declared, with frequent iteration, that its sole purpose was to restore order in Egypt, with no idea of conquest; and the European situation was such that its declarations were, perforce, accepted. The Suez canal, which had almost been closed by an engineer in Arabi's following, was held by Admiral Seymour, in spite of neutralization, and used as the English base. On the 9th of September, the British land forces under Sir Garnet Wolseley overthrew the short-lived power of Arabi in the trenches of Tel-el-Kebir, and soon had Egypt in control. The Porte was informed that its troops would not be needed, and France was given to understand that having declined to coöperate in the pacification of Egypt, it had forfeited its claim to any interference in Egyptian affairs. British occupation and guardianship, in a country so ill-administered, inevitably led to practical British control, a control without any technical warrant in international law, but proving really beneficial to Egypt and to the civilized world, and not likely to be given up while England retains its vast interests in the East. Under existing conditions Egypt is a necessity to Great Britain, and it is equally clear that Great Britain is necessary to Egyptian development and prosperity.



ORIENTAL EDUCATION — AN ARAB SCHOOL IN CAIRO.

The rebellion of Arabi established British control in Egypt. The unwillingness of France to coöperate in the suppression of the rebellion eliminated it as a factor in Egyptian affairs. These two results of the rebellion are undoubtedly final. Great Britain has distinctly shown its unwillingness, having borne the burden of the reorganization of Egypt, to

Establishment of British control.



readmit France into the old partnership, and it is equally certain that unless coerced by a combination of the powers, Great Britain will not let go the hold which it has established in the land of the Nile. It has too large a

ARMED TRAIN AND BRITISH MARINES IN EGYPT.

financial stake there, and it has expended too much money and sacrificed too many brave men, and the position is too important for it to yield the advantage of possession. Nor is a combination likely to be made against

it. France alone comes into collision with England in this quarter, and France alone will not undertake to challenge the British lion. Russia, France's ally at the present time, is quite content to leave England in undisputed possession in Egypt, where Russia has no interest, in return for England's forbearance in regions where



TYPES OF SOFTAS
(MOHAMMEDAN
STUDENTS).

Russia has interests. With Italy, Great Britain has a very good understanding in Mediterranean and African affairs, and the remaining powers of the concert have shown no inclination to disturb the British control.

Egypt as now constituted is a unique political organism. It is nominally a province of the Ottoman empire, having as its head the khedive, but it is largely administered by British officials, Great Britain undertaking to represent the interests of the foreign creditors. It is estimated that probably one-half of the national debt is held in Great Britain. The sirdar, or head of the Egyptian army, is an English officer. The judicial powers of the government have been very materially curtailed by the

International
courts.

international courts, on which thirteen European states and the United States are represented. These courts grow out of a consolidation of privileges granted under concessions or capitulations, some of them of very ancient origin, from the Ottoman sultan. They give unusual privileges of jurisdiction to the diplomatic and consular representatives of the various governments, and the international courts which have been established have complete jurisdiction in actions involving property rights in which Europeans or Americans may be interested with other aliens or with Egyptians. The khedive and the Egyptian government itself may be held responsible to this tribunal. Neither is there any criminal jurisdiction over foreigners on the part of national Egyptian courts. The finances of the government are under the surveillance of the International Debt Commission, on which each of the great

ABBAS PASHA, PRES-
ENT KHEDIVE OF
EGYPT.



powers of Europe has a delegate stationed at Cairo to watch the condition

of the Egyptian treasury, and to collect any surplus that may appear, on behalf of the bondholders in his country. Under the British direction there has been a decided improvement in the financial situation. The burden of debt is still enormous for a nation whose people are as poor as the Egyptians, but the expenditures have been for several years kept well within the revenue, and a very creditable surplus has been obtained each year. Meanwhile taxes have been gradually reduced and compulsory labor and slavery have been abolished. This admirable result has been reached by shutting off the leaks due to extravagance and dishonesty, by applying improved methods of agriculture, and adding to the cultivable area by scientific irrigation. The income from railways and postal and telegraph service has been increased through a large reduction in rates and improvement in service, and the salt monopoly has been made more profitable by a heavy reduction in price. The population has steadily increased and was, according to the census of 1897 for Egypt below Wady Halfa, 9,750,000, giving a density of about 928 per square mile of habitable area, which is greater than that of any country of Europe.

Reform and
development.

The Egyptian army.



ISMAIL PASHA, LATE
KHEDIVE OF EGYPT.

The present Egyptian army, numbering over eighteen thousand men, is an English creation and demonstrated its efficiency during the war against the khalifa, under Kitchener, for the reconquest of the Sudan. The old army was disbanded in 1882 after the rebellion of Arabi, and its reorganization was intrusted to an English officer, with the title of sirdar. Of the sirdars, General Kitchener has done most to make the army the efficient machine it now is. He had seen much service in the Sudan, and attained the rank of sirdar for proved merit as an organizer and campaigner. The River War of 1896 made his fame secure. The troops of Lower Egypt make a fine showing and are kept much in evidence for the sake of the effect upon an ignorant population, very susceptible to military display. The Sudanese troops are less showy, but they are capital fighters. Readers of Kipling will recall his tribute to the Sudanese, in the well-known ballad, "Fuzzy-Wuzzy":

"So 'ere's to you, Fuzzy-Wuzzy, at your 'ome in the Sudan;
You're a pore benighted 'eathen but a first-class fightin' man;
An' 'ere's to you, Fuzzy-Wuzzy, with your 'ayrick 'ead of 'air —
You big black boundin' beggar — for you broke a British square!"

It is these men, whose quality the best troops of the British army had learned to admire, of whom Kitchener and his lieutenants have made some of the best fighting material in the Egyptian army. Service is compulsory and the pay of the soldiers is about five cents a day. Under such conditions it may be readily seen what a colossal task met the officers who were placed in charge of the work of military reconstruction. It is not easy to make good, disciplined soldiers out of a race ground down by generations of servitude, as were the Egyptians, or of fanatical barbarian tribesmen like the Sudanese. Yet it has been done and done well. A British army of occupation, numbering about five thousand, is also maintained in Egypt, the Egyptian government paying the difference in cost between home and foreign service — about half a million dollars annually.

Service compulsory
and pay small.

Future of Egypt.

Some intimations have been given in this chapter of what the immediate future of Egypt seems likely to be. Its young khedive, Abbas Hilmi, perhaps the best of his line and certainly the ablest since Mehemet Ali, is sometimes restive under foreign control, but he is keenly alive to the needs and the shortcomings of Egypt, and works industriously for the good of his people, coöperating with the foreign officials to whom he owes the prosperity of the state. The Egypt of today is quite as much the creation of Viscount Cromer, the British consul-general and minister plenipotentiary, as of any other man. By him the "veiled protectorate" is judiciously administered, and this curious anomaly of international politics owes much to his force and judgment. The future of Egypt is closely connected with that of the recently reconquered Sudan, of the relation of which to African affairs more will be said in a subsequent chapter, the purpose of the present discussion being to consider Egypt in its new relation to the old Eastern question.

CHAPTER XIV.

COLONIAL EXPANSION.

Significance of movements of colonization.

The preceding chapters have been devoted to a study of internal conditions in the leading European states and of certain points at which their several interests have come into collision because of their immediate environment. But the progress of civilization and the conflicts of nations have been due to colonial expansion more than to any other cause. Just as different densities of atmosphere cause air currents, so the different capacities of races of men cause movements on the earth which are as natural as the winds and the tides, and as little to be prevented by any merely human effort. A strong, progressive race grows within its own limits, and then reaches out into the world for wider spheres of influence, urged by the spirit of adventure and exploration and the desire for commercial gain, or for the extension of its religion and its civilization. The greatest events of history have revolved around these movements of national expansion carried on by the strong races, and whatever may have been the immediate means and methods of the process, the aggregate result has been the spreading of better institutions far and wide over the face of the earth. Some races show no capacity for progress, settling early, like the Chinese, into fixed forms and excluding all elements of advancement, or living on a low animal plane like the negro tribes of Africa, learning nothing except what is forced upon them, beyond the simple processes necessary for the satisfaction of their physical wants. The different branches of the great white race have shown another spirit. Their career has been one of aspiration for material and spiritual progress, and some branches of the race have pressed forward toward ends but dimly seen, with a fidelity and energy that have marked them as preëminently the motive forces of civilization. This active, outward-reaching movement has especially marked the maritime peoples, because of their natural commercial interests and that restless, daring spirit which is cultivated by a close communion with the sea. Early on the stage of history the Greeks and the Phœnicians in the Mediterranean gave striking examples of this,—the Phœnicians planting numerous trading posts, some of which, like Carthage, became flourishing colonies, and the Greeks sending far and wide through the Mediterranean world true colonies, which in their turn became politically independent. These early colonies were the most efficient agents of antiquity in the advancement of civilization. The Egyptian state, with its immemorial civilization, was overwhelmed and its people lost their national identity because of their exclusiveness and lack of the colonizing spirit, while the influence of the numerically small Hellenic nation survived the decadence and downfall of

Mission of the white race.

Historic colonizing movements.



REVIEW OF THE
ARMY OF OCCUPA-
TION IN THE SQUARE
OF THE CONSULS,
ALEXANDRIA,
EGYPT, 1883.

its earlier states, and has become a permanent legacy to humanity. The different branches of the great Teutonic race in their movements by land or sea instilled into the decadent life of the Roman world a new vitality, developed new and vigorous states, animated by political principles of the highest value to the world, and in their rude and boisterous fashion marched forward to great destinies through centuries of storm and trial. In the middle ages, when the European world seemed closed within itself far more than it had been in earlier times, the revival of the study of cosmography, and the discoveries of a few able navigators, urged by personal daring, religious fervor, or commercial greed, brought to light lands occupied by races less highly organized or less enterprising and progressive, and gave rise to the stupendous modern colonizing movements which have changed the whole political face of the globe.

But active colonial enterprise required not only the spur of commerce, religion, and adventure,—it needed a developed national spirit. The idea of nationality was vague in antiquity. In the disorder of the early middle ages it was entirely lost, the Roman empire having done much to destroy whatever national sense had existed among the ancient peoples whom it included in its wide dominion. The national life of antiquity had been a narrow city life, rather than that of a national state as realized in modern times. As western Europe gradually collected itself from the chaos of feudalism, the idea of nationality emerged as the great political force of the new era, and it was powerfully felt in the wars and progress of the era of discovery and colonization which followed the extension of the European horizon beyond the Atlantic and into the farther East. It is very interesting to note the inspiration of the new national life upon those people who were earliest in the field of exploration and colonization, as well as in the case of that state which, coming last into the field, outstripped them all in extent and permanence of achievement. Spain and Portugal, the leaders in the work of discovery, had just come to the close of their age-long struggle with the Mohammedan power, and felt for the first time the sense of exclusive and firm possession of their national territory. Little Holland fought its gallant battle for independence and liberty and, full of the sense of its new-found freedom and confidence in its powers, reached out for control of the sea and for a commerce that would supply the sinews necessary to support its new

Importance of
national spirit to
colonial enterprise.

existence. In a somewhat different way the same powerful force may be seen behind the French attempt at empire. No country in Europe had in the seventeenth century developed national spirit to a higher degree than France. Powerful, ambitious, the dominant force in European politics, it sought to add to its domain in the new-found lands beyond the seas in order that it might maintain its commanding position and not be disturbed by rival states. Finally, we shall see how the spirit of the people, which is the surest foundation of national life, entered into the activities of England when it entered the field as a rival of the colonizing powers that had preceded it.

The winning and losing of empire.

It is one of the most interesting facts in regard to the work of colonization from the time of Columbus to the middle of the eighteenth century that but one of the nations that entered upon a career of expansion

during that period has held its ground, and this nation, England, learned by a costly experience the lesson which has enabled it to become great as a world power. This is due to deep-seated causes which have been so fully and often discussed and are



A NATIVE EGYPTIAN REGIMENT.

so well understood that they need only to be mentioned. They are found in the national characteristics of the several peoples, and in their methods of colonization and colonial administration. The warriors of Spain and Portugal penetrated the wilds of the new world and the hidden corners of the oldest world to gratify their pride, their love of battle and of conquest, their fanatical religious zeal, and above all their greed of gold. Themselves people of mixed race, they assimilated with the native populations, and, as is always the case, this crossing of strains resulted in the lowering of the higher race, rather than the raising of the lower. The exclusiveness and race pride which is so sharply criticized in the northern races is the safeguard of national power and the surest guarantee of progress. In 1800, Spain held a large part of western North America, all of Mexico and Central America, and the South American continent, with the exception of Brazil. Every foot of this ground is now lost to it because Philip II. chose to close the doors of Spain to the sunlight and air of the outside world, and to make it a recluse nation, the victim of its own national pride and religious bigotry. With a constant stream of gold flowing into its coffers from its American possessions, Spain failed to become strong financially, and the profits of its colonies were absorbed by shrewder people. With all its higher aspirations for constitutional liberty crushed by an oppressive monarchy, it was impossible for Spain to develop institutions capable of successful application to the government of colonies and dependencies. Little by little its possessions were wrung from it until in the middle of the present century it retained only Cuba, Porto Rico and the Philippines. Portugal felt to some extent the influence that affected Spain, and during the period when Portugal became part of the Spanish monarchy, its East Indian possessions were in great part wrested from it by Holland, then at war with Spain. France had many of the elements that make for success as a colonial power, but it had also in its constitution the seeds of failure. In the new world it held some of the most important gate-

Spain, France and England.

ways to the northern continent. In India it had as early an establishment as England, and as able leadership, but the influence that brought upon France the crisis of the Revolution weakened its efficiency in colonial affairs, destroyed much of the work of its ablest men, placed court favorites in power, and prevented the growth of strong, self-supporting colonial establishments that should be their own best protection in time of national conflict. The course of the English government in the matter of colonization was not materially different from that of the government of Spain or of France. It was guided by the ideas current in that age of the function of colonies, but there entered into English colonization an element which was lacking in that of any of the other nations that had preceded it. This was the sturdy, self-reliant, liberty-loving spirit of the English people themselves, trained by centuries of struggle for parliamentary government, developed in the Calvinistic congregations of the Reformation, and brought to the fullest flower in the triumph of Puritanism in the seventeenth century. This individual initiative was lacking in the Catholic monarchies of Spain and France. England in the seventeenth century stood for vital principles in religion and in government, and its people felt this. They felt the fire of a new and vigorous life, they felt their position as the advocates of religious liberty, and whether in the sublimated piracy of Drake and Hawkins, or the stern, unbending national policy of the Puritan commonwealth of Cromwell, there was always a strong popular support for those acts of policy which strengthened England's sea power, advanced Protestantism, and made England respected among nations.

English colonization.

The eighteenth century found all these nations in the field as colonizing powers, and by the middle of the century the battle for supremacy was fairly on. For a while there were enough new worlds and to spare, but occupancy succeeding occupancy brought the different powers into collision. National and religious hostility, already intense, resulted in a constant succession of wars for world dominion, for colonial supremacy. The culmination came in the Seven Years' war, when all of Europe met in a gigantic struggle between two great coalitions to settle many questions of continental and wider significance. At that time Germany and Italy as distinct national entities were not known. Prussia, already a European power of some importance, had a principal part in the war, but Prussia, Austria and Russia had no interest in the colonial issues. The Spanish power was already upon its decline, and while Spain still held its colonial possessions, it did not come seriously into conflict with the other powers, but with England and France the struggle was one upon which depended colonial supremacy and the control of the sea. The triumph of England was a triumph of principles of the highest importance to the growth of civilization. It left the Anglo-Saxon in undisputed control of eastern North America; it broke the growing French power in India, and prepared the way for building up the British Indian empire. Of all the powers that have thus far participated in the work of colonization, England, the last to take the field, alone remained an active force in the spread of civilization in the West, as well as in the East. In the latter direction, however, one exception should be noted. Russia, hardly as yet a fully civilized power but gaining constantly in wisdom and in strength, having a vast territory, but needing outlets free from control by rival powers, had been steadily following a course of eastern expansion, and in northern and central Asia was already beginning the work of extending civilization into regions as yet outside the ken of the other powers, which are now watching so closely every movement of Russia in provinces which it long ago made its own.

Eighteenth-century rivalries.

Meaning of the Seven Years' war, 1756-1763.

Russia's eastward expansion.

It will be noticed that for the most part the movement of civilization from earliest times has been carried on by successive waves of colonization or expansion of national influence, from east to west. Beginning in the

General movement of civilization westward.

Ægean, the earliest civilization, leaving out of account that of the ancient races of farther Asia, had its center of operations in the Mediterranean, and developed around the shores of that inland sea. The rise of Teutonic power carried the tide westward and northward, and the discoveries of Columbus made the Atlantic the center of further development. Each of the great nations of western Europe planted characteristic colonies in the new world at the west, and there the eternal struggle for the survival of the fittest went on. The failure of the English government to be true to the principles for which the English nation so distinctly stood, produced the revolt of a part of the English colonies in America, resulting in the establishment of a new nation professedly to better carry out those principles. That nation has followed the inevitable law of expansion westward, crossing the continent step by step from the Atlantic to the Pacific, gaining power as it has advanced, finally winning a recognized place among the great powers of the world, and has destroyed the last remnants of Spanish power in America, completing the work which was begun by Drake and Raleigh and the English statesmen and soldiers of the age of Elizabeth. It has carried a vigorous and progressive type of western civilization to the verge of the Pacific. That mighty ocean has now become the scene of a new act in the great drama to which the work of Columbus and of Magellan was the prelude.

The new phase of expansion.

It is to be observed that while problems of colonization and of national expansion once concerned themselves with the occupation of barbarous lands by people more or less civilized, the world has now been so thoroughly exploited, its lands so fully occupied, that the more highly civilized peoples are pressing with ever increasing persistence against the barrier of ignorance, superstition and prejudice set up by the less progressive societies against the march of ideas. The problem of China or of the Philippines today is not materially different in the general principles which are likely to control national action in the premises, from that of America in the year 1600. Our more highly organized and more complex nineteenth-century civilization demands for itself, whether justly or unjustly, the consideration of those peoples that have held themselves aloof from the currents of modern life. It insists that they shall recognize the requirements of that modern life in the interest of the peace and prosperity of the world. The colonial policy of the nations at the present time is peculiar to the nineteenth century, is a result of the development of the past centuries, but is directed along new lines and has to do with modern conditions.

CHAPTER XV.

IMPERIAL ENGLAND.

"To the last and the largest Empire,
To the map that is half unrolled!"

Kipling: "The Native-Born."

The idea of national expansion in England.

The institution of a systematic policy of national expansion is a new idea in England, although the English people have been carrying out for three centuries the most remarkable process of empire-building of which history furnishes an example. Sir John Seeley aptly says: "We seem as it were to have conquered and peopled half the world in a fit of absence of mind."¹ While this has been done, Englishmen have established and England has lost, by the fatuous policy of its government, a group of colonies that have themselves developed into a mighty state, a world



¹ "Expansion of England," p. 8.

power, a true exponent of the best for which England itself has stood in the world. The best types of true colonies that we know were the English plantations that made the beginnings of the United States. They grew out of religious, political and industrial conditions. They swept England into the tide of larger world activities. When she lost them there were other interests left, not so valuable, but still demanding the fostering care of a strong sea power. This sea power England must hold, or fall into insignificance in her island domain—an alternative not to be considered by the breed of Raleigh, Blake, and Nelson.

The rivalry of nations in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries forced Protestant England to fight her battles with

Catholic Spain and Catholic France in many lands and through all the seas. As the religious conflicts that grew out of the Reformation gradually slipped into the background, the commercial and industrial questions of the new era became prominent, and England fought with Holland as well as with her Catholic rivals for the supremacy of the sea. The primary factor in the expansion of England has been the limited area of the islands occupied by a vigorous, ambitious, enterprising race, a race of sailors and merchants, as well as of artisans. Increase of population would compel expansion, unaided by other causes. If the well-worn formula, "Trade follows the flag," were reversed, it would be nearer the truth. For the most part, the flag with all that it carries has followed trade in the expansion of modern times. This is particularly true of British expansion. Where the English trader has gone the protection of England and of English institutions has followed as a matter of course.



ference to praise or blame, an unequaled ability in overcoming difficulties, and, above all, with an undying love of liberty, especially of British liberty, the English have followed the course that destiny



CLIVE STREET,
CALCUTTA.

Protestant England
against the Catholic
powers.

Closely united with these impulses to action is that indefinable but tremendous force, the genius of the people. Endowed with an unconquerable spirit of enterprise, a stubborn confidence in their own superlative wisdom, a curious mingling of fair play and justice with overbearing insolence, an absolute indif-

THE COMMON-
WEALTH OF AUS-
TRALIA — THE
QUAY, SYDNEY, NEW
SOUTH WALES.

The genius of the
people.

THE COMMON-WEALTH OF AUSTRALIA — THE TOWN HALL, MELBOURNE, VICTORIA.



Colonial idea and system.

marked for such as they. Yet they have never shown any clear conception of the task they have undertaken, until within a decade the significance of Greater Britain has begun to dawn upon government and people. The present elastic colonial system has grown as the various departments of government, state and local, in the United Kingdom itself have grown, by adaptation to the needs of each case, without following any fixed formula. Of the new and more conscious British imperialism, Sir John Seeley, among political and historical scholars, and Rudyard Kipling in literature, are notable exponents. The former's temperate discussion of English expansion has been full of suggestion to thoughtful students of English race; while the spirit of a wide-spread people sounds through the spirited song of Kipling and makes the latter a real force in the life of the race. The development of communication by cable and steamship, railway and telegraph, which is so profoundly influencing the destiny of the modern world, is drawing the parts of the British empire more closely together, and the proved loyalty of the great self-governing colonies in a time of crisis has impressed upon English statesmen the real importance of the colonies and the need that they be given more attention than hitherto.

England's triumph over her rivals in the eighteenth century.

The significance of the Seven Years' war in Europe, with its collateral struggles in America and India, the West and the East Indies, was referred to in the preceding chapter. After the Peace of Paris in 1763, with all her commercial rivals prostrate, England was in a most favorable position. The rapid development of her manufactures at the same time made the island one of the chief workshops of the world. The traditions of the old economic order were still dominant, however, and England had yet to learn the great lesson of national expansion — how to deal with colonies. The American Revolution was a great and salutary lesson. By it the new British empire suffered an irreparable loss, but also received its first education in colonial administration. England emerged from the struggle determined to preserve her commercial and maritime supremacy against her watchful enemy across the Channel. The struggle with Napoleon was really a struggle on behalf of English commerce. British colonial development, so closely connected with British trade took on new

life after the final overthrow of the arch-disturber of Europe's peace.

Colonization by settlement and the establishment of trading posts in the seventeenth century, and the wars of the eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries, brought under the English flag or influence stations and districts in various parts of the world—in the two Americas, in the West Indies, in Africa, in Asia and the East Indies, in Australasia, and in various islands. Since 1814 the widening of British control has been chiefly through expansion of boundaries of regions already partially occupied or acquired. British foreign policy has been directed to the maintenance of possession of these territories. Gibraltar, Malta, Cyprus, Aden, and finally Egypt have been obtained and held for the security of India and the trade routes thereto. The British empire at present comprises the following territories and populations:

The growth of the British empire.

	SQ. MILES.	POPULATION.
United Kingdom	120,979	40,559,954
India and feudatory states	1,800,258	287,223,431
Europe (Gibraltar, Malta, and Gozo)	119	204,421
Asia (Aden and Perim, Ceylon, Hong Kong, Labuan, Straits Settlements)	27,321	4,363,257
Africa (Basutoland, Cape Colony, Natal, Gambia, Gold Coast, Lagos, Sierra Leone, Nigeria, islands of Ascension, Mauritius, and St. Helena, and the territories of the South African and Orange Free State.)	935,393	31,233,439
America (Bermudas, Canada, Falkland Islands and South Georgia, British Guiana, British Honduras, Newfoundland and Labrador; the Bahamas, Jamaica and Turks Islands, Barbadoes, Leeward and Windward Islands, Tobago and Trinidad)	3,952,572	7,260,169
Australasia (Fiji, New Guinea, New Zealand, the Commonwealth of Australia)	3,175,840	5,009,281
Total, United Kingdom, India, and colonies	10,012,482	375,853,952
Protectorates.		
Asia	120,400	1,200,000
Africa	2,160,000	35,000,000
Pacific	800	30,000
Total, Protectorates (estimated)	2,281,200	36,230,000
Total, British Empire	12,293,682	412,083,952

These possessions, leaving out of account for the present the protectorates, fall into three classes—India and its connections, the tropical colonies, and the self-governing colonies, which are all in the temperate zone. The last class is the backbone of the empire, the part that wins for it respect among nations, and must be depended on as its support in any crisis due to international conflict. In this class are included in the north temperate zone, Canada and Newfoundland; and in the south temperate, Cape Colony, Natal,² New Zealand, and the newly-formed commonwealth of Australia, comprising the six federated Australian colonies. Here again we find three groups—an American, an African, and an Australasian. All of these countries have been largely settled by English-speaking people, who in America and Australasia displaced a weak and scattering native population of barbarous or savage tribes. There are two exceptions to this statement, the numerous French population in Canada, and the Maoris of New Zealand. By considerate treatment the Canadian French have been made loyal and contented citizens of the British empire, while retaining their language and customs to a considerable extent. The Maoris, a vigorous race intellectually and physically, who are believed to have come to New Zealand by wanderings from an

Three classes of possessions:
(1) India; (2) tropical colonies; (3) self-governing colonies.

The self-governing colonies.

The race question.



¹ The figures for Africa are in several cases, especially in that of the new Nigeria colony, made up from conservative estimates, no accurate data being obtainable.

² Natal is not fully endowed with responsible government.

earlier home in India, have accepted the inevitable after an obstinate resistance to British settlement and have become useful citizens of New Zealand.

South Africa.

In South Africa a different problem has presented itself. There a large native population holds its own with a persistence remarkable among barbarous peoples when confronted by civilization, and comes but slowly to the white man's ways. Furthermore, there has been in South Africa a double conquest and a double colonization, that of the Dutch preceding that of the English. The Dutch conquest and settlement left behind it a sturdy, peculiar people of pure Dutch stock, with certain acquired traits of character due to isolation for several generations from the main currents of the world's life. The more bigoted and independent of these people retired before the English advance and sought to hold certain interior regions for themselves and their descendants, without regard to the world outside. The finding of great quantities of gold in their territory gave it importance to the world at large, which will never allow gold, iron, or coal to be monopolized by an exclusive people, so long as economic conditions remain dependent upon the supply of these products. A discussion of the resulting friction and conflict

World interest in
gold, coal, and iron.

between the Boers and their British neighbors is no part of the present subject. The result apparently is the addition of the two Boer states to British territory. The Dutch element left in Cape Colony has been for the most part amenable to the British system, although



HONG KONG.

parties in the colony are often drawn on national lines and the loyalty of the Cape Colony to the empire is not so well assured as that of Canada and Australasia.

Self-governing
democracies.

In administering these great colonies England learned to read the lesson of its earlier American experience. They are practically self-governing, with parliaments and responsible ministries; the governor-general, the only crown officer, having a nominal veto power on legislation, which like that of the crown itself has lapsed from disuse. Their governments are complete, except in foreign affairs, which are the province of the imperial government exclusively. Canada and Australia are federal governments, which have some resemblance to the United States, and many differences from that type. They offer some of the best examples of vigorous, free, self-respecting democracies in the world.



REVIEW QUESTIONS.

CHAPTER XII.

1. Why were Russia's relations to England, Germany, and Austro-Hungary respectively somewhat strained after the Congress of Berlin?
2. With what country did Russia naturally come into friendly relations?
3. How did Russia lose its hold upon Bulgaria?
4. What led to the Triple Alliance of 1883?
5. How does England stand with reference to the other powers?
6. What obstacles stand in the way of the Balkan confederation?
7. What did Bismarck outline as the future Russian policy?
8. Why has it not come true?
9. What commercial interests have Germany and Austria at stake in the Eastern question?
10. How has the Roumanian kingdom been strengthened?
11. What important events have transpired in Bulgaria since 1885?
12. Why did the Armenian massacres go unpunished?

1. Who was Mehemet Ali? 2. What did he do for Egypt? 3. How did Egypt incur its debt? 4. How did England secure a controlling interest in the Suez canal? 5. To what extent has she made use of it? 6. Why was Ismail deposed? 7. What was the situation when Tewfik became khedive? 8. What was the Arabi rebellion? 9. How did England secure the reins of government? 10. How did France lose her influence in Egypt? 11. Why is England likely to remain in undisturbed possession? 12. How did the international courts come to be established? 13. How do the powers oversee the finances of the government? 14. What reforms has England introduced? 15. How has the Egyptian army been brought to its present state? 16. Who is the present khedive and what is his character? CHAPTER XIII.

1. What are chief causes which have led to conflicts among nations? 2. Give examples of nations which have declined because of their exclusiveness? 3. What motives have caused the expansion of the white race? 4. How has the sea influenced various nations? 5. How did the life of European countries previous to the middle ages differ from the national life of today? 6. Give illustrations of states whose power abroad was the result of a growing national spirit? 7. Why did Spain and Portugal decline as colonial powers? 8. Why did France? 9. How had the spirit of liberty been fostered in the English people? 10. What was the result of the Seven Years' war (the French and Indian war)? 11. What had Russia been doing at this time? 12. What was the result of England's loss of the American colonies? 13. What is the attitude of the nineteenth century toward the unprogressive nations? CHAPTER XIV.

1. How did religion effect the rivalry of nations in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries? 2. What has been the chief cause of the expansion of England? 3. How has England's position as an imperial kingdom been impressed upon her in the last decade? 4. Why does England need to hold territory in the Mediterranean? 5. What possessions has England in Asia? 6. What in Africa? 7. What in America? 8. In what three great classes may these be grouped? 9. What are the self-governing colonies? 10. What race questions have entered into their government? CHAPTER XV.

1. What princess of a Balkan state married the crown prince of one of the European powers? 2. Of what family is the present king of Serbia? 3. Who was the projector of the Suez canal? 4. With what unfortunate enterprise was he afterwards connected? 5. What Englishman laid the foundation of English supremacy in India? 6. What were the East India Companies? 7. What and where are Gozo, Aden and Perim? Search Questions.

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X.

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XI.

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TOPICAL ANALYSIS.

THE BALKAN PENINSULA SINCE 1878.

CHAPTER XII.

- Disappointment of Russia.
 - Nationalism in Bulgaria.
 - Course of Alexander III.
- The Berlin congress and European alliances.
- The Balkan and Danubian states.
 - Bulgaria and the Turks.
 - Obstacles to confederation.
 - Course of Nicolas II.
- Bismarck's forecast of Russia's Eastern policy.
- Germany's new interest in Asiatic Turkey.
- Austria's commercial stake.
- Development of the new states.
 - Roumania, Bulgaria, Servia, and Montenegro.
- Greece and Armenia.

THE GATE OF THE ORIENT.

CHAPTER XIII.

- England and Egypt.
 - The line of Mehemet Ali.
 - The Egyptian debt.
 - England and the Suez canal.
 - Development of British influence in Egypt.
 - Tewfik and the nationalists.
 - The revolt of Arabi.
 - Bombardment of Alexandria.
 - Establishment of British control.
 - Egypt's unique government.
 - International courts and debt commission.
 - Reform and development.
 - The Egyptian army.
 - The future of Egypt.

COLONIAL EXPANSION.

CHAPTER XIV.

- The significance of movements of colonization.
 - The mission of the white race.
 - Historic colonizing movements.
 - The national spirit in colonial enterprise.
 - The winning and losing of empire.
 - Spain, France, and England.
 - Eighteenth-century rivalries — the Seven Years' war.
 - Russia's eastward expansion.
 - The general movement westward.
 - The new phase of expansion.

IMPERIAL ENGLAND.

CHAPTER XV.

- The idea of national expansion in England.
 - Protestant England against the Catholic powers.
 - English impulses to colonization.
 - The genius of the people.
 - Growth of the colonial idea and system.
 - Seeley and Kipling.
 - England's triumph over her rivals in the eighteenth century.
- The growth of the British empire.
 - Territories and population under British control.
 - Their classes: (1) India; (2) tropical colonies; (3) self-governing colonies.
 - The self-governing colonies.
 - The race question.
 - South Africa — the world interest in gold, coal, and iron.
 - Democracy in the colonies.



[The voyage from New York to Gibraltar, scenes in Tangier and Algiers, and the arrival at Alexandria, were described in the October issue. In November, Alexandria, the trip to Upper Egypt, and scenes along the Nile, were the subjects considered. In December, "Down the Nile to Cairo" was the topic.]

IV. MODERN PALESTINE AND SYRIA—FROM PORT SAID TO BEIRUT.

BY GEORGE L. ROBINSON.



TRAVEL in Palestine and Syria is possible during the entire year, Season. but most tourists avoid the summer months on account of the heat and dust, there being no rainfall between May and October. The best months are March and April, when the scenery is most enchanting and the vegetation and flowers most beautiful.

Leaving Port Said about dusk, after having had at least a glimpse of the land of the Pharaohs, the French steamer of the Messageries Maritimes Company sails along the coast of the Philistine country near enough to sight, in clear weather at early dawn, the ancient city of Samson—Gaza. Arriving at Jaffa about nine o'clock in the morning, the ship is anchored half a mile out from the picturesque town, and small boats, manned by some of the most unprincipled scoundrels of the country, convey the passengers ashore, the last thirty feet of the voyage the passengers probably being carried on the backs of the Arab oarsmen. But the student of Bible lands is too glad to set his feet upon the sacred soil of Palestine to care much about the mode of arrival or the exorbitant price. Arrival by sea.

A much more interesting route, but rarely chosen because too tedious and hazardous, is the overland journey from Suez, on camels across the desert, via Mount Sinai and Kadesh-Barnea to Gaza, and so on to Jerusalem. This is destined in the future to become more and more the popular route. Thirty or forty days, however, should be allowed for the desert voyage, as camels travel at the "giddy" rate of two and one-half miles per hour. The great benefit of the trip is the introduction it gives the traveler to primitive Arab life, initiating him into the habits and characteristics of the people, and affording the rare privilege of visiting the Mount of God and of following in the footsteps of Moses and the children of Israel. But as only about one in a thousand of those who visit Palestine go to the expense of time and money required in crossing the desert, we shall begin our trip through the country at Jaffa. Across Sinai.

There is really little of interest to delay one in Jaffa, the ancient Joppa, Jaffa except the traditional house of Simon the Tanner, the extensive orange groves to the north of the city, and the large German colony. Jaffa is imposing as seen from the steamer upon arrival, being situated at the foot of a rock about one hundred feet high, but its streets and buildings are anything but interesting, except to the traveler who is receiving his first impressions of oriental life. Yet all is new; and now that the custom-house is passed, the visitor begins to realize that he is in the Holy Land.¹ At the same time, the inquisitions by the Turkish officials of passport and *tezkerah* remind him that he is no longer free, but must certify his right to traverse the territory of his majesty the sultan.

¹ Palestine is called "the Holy Land" but once in the Bible (Zech. 2:12).

MOUNT SINAI.



Difficulties of eastern travel.

Travel in the Orient is attended by so many difficulties that numerous proverbs have been coined to express a native's dread of setting out. For example, they say, "A man in a strange place is blind though he has eyesight;" and "There are three states of wretchedness—sickness, fasting, and travel." The following recipe is specially enjoined before taking a journey: "Pay all debts, provide for dependents, give parting gifts, return all articles under trust, take money and good temper for the journey; then bid farewell to all, and be merciful to the animal you ride."

The ordinary route.

The route usually taken through the country is from Jaffa to Jerusalem by rail, stopping from ten to fourteen days in the Holy City and vicinity, visiting Bethlehem, Hebron, Jericho, and the Dead sea, then taking horses and tents and going north via Bethel, Shechem, Jenin, Nazareth, Mount Tabor, Tiberias, the Sea of Galilee, Banias (Cæsarea Philippi) to Damascus; resting two or three days in Damascus, and then proceeding by rail or *diligence* over Mt. Lebanon to Beirut. From Beirut steamers are obtained, going north via Tripoli, Cyprus, and Smyrna, to Constantinople; or, if desired, south via Sidon, Haifa, and Jaffa, to Alexandria. The time usually spent within the country is from four to six weeks.

BEDOUIN WOMEN
AT THE WELL—
BEERSHEBA.

A slight acquaintance with the language of the country helps greatly to enhance one's appreciation of the trip. The universal tongue spoken throughout Palestine and Syria is Arabic, one of the richest and most difficult languages in the world; but that spoken by the government officials is Turkish, which is written in Arabic characters. The Arabic is Semitic; the Turkish, Turanian. A few words like *yallah*, "ready," "hurry up;" *imshi*, "begone;" *tayyib*, "all right;" and *iskut*, "be quiet," are sure to be absorbed by most tourists before the journey's end. The Arabic is one of the richest in synonyms of all known tongues. There are said to be five hundred words, or terms, to express "camel,"





DAVID STREET —
JERUSALEM.

fifty for "sword," and multitudes for what is foul and profane. When an Arab wishes to swear, he says, "May your house be burned;" or, "May your father, or religion, be cursed;"—the last being considered the worst oath in the language, and never said by a Christian to a Mohammedan on penalty of death.

Leaving Jaffa for the Holy City, the traveler crosses first the rich and variegated plain of Sharon. Should it happen to be in March, he is charmed with the scarlet anemones and poppies of exquisite hue which beautify the level stretch between the sea and Ramleh. At length the foothills of the Shephelah are reached, and he begins the ascent of the mountains of Judea, looking back betimes to enjoy the scenery of the Philistine country and the sea. By rail, the distance of fifty-three miles between Jaffa and Jerusalem is covered in about four hours. A daily train leaves the former at 1:20 P. M., arriving at the station outside the Jaffa gate of the Holy City at 5:15 o'clock. The carriage road is more direct, the distance being only forty-one miles, and the trip is usually made by vehicle in eight hours, or on horseback in twelve. By either route, the traveler is impressed by the barrenness of the mountain scenery in contrast with the luxuriant fertility of the plain. Ruins of ancient terraces give signs of what once was, when Palestine was under a better and more civilized government. The ride is somewhat fatiguing, and usually the tourist is glad to reach his destination. Should he have the spirit of a true pilgrim, however, and copy the example of many Russian Christians of the Greek Orthodox Church, thousands of whom visit Jerusalem every Easter, upon reaching the last and highest summit he would fall upon the ground and go the remaining distance (almost a mile) on hands and knees, even to the door of the Church of the Holy Sepulcher. For this is the manner adopted by which to express their gratitude and devotion when, at last, they have been permitted to gaze upon the sacred city of Christ and Christianity.

From Jaffa to Jerusalem.

There is but one Jerusalem! "If I forget thee, O Jerusalem," says the exiled poet, "let my right hand forget (how to play the harp); yea, let my tongue cleave to the roof of my mouth (so that I may never sing again)." What other city has witnessed such transactions! The city of Melchizedek and David, of Solomon and the Kings; besieged by Nebuchadnezzar and Titus; of Judas Maccabeus and Herod, of Agrippa and Hadrian

Jerusalem in history.

DAVID'S POOL —
HEBRON.



The people of Jeru-
salem.

(117–138 A. D.), of the Egyptian Fatimites (969 A. D.) and Saladin (1187), of Mahomet Ali (1831) and Sultan Abdul Mejid (1840). The present governor of Jerusalem is a Mutessarrif, immediately responsible to the Porte at Constantinople.

The population of the city is not far from sixty thousand, two-thirds of whom are Jews, about thirteen thousand Christians, and seven thousand Mohammedans. The Jews are immigrating rapidly of late. They have as many as seventy synagogues. Many of these interesting Israelites are aged, and as they walk down David street, with their characteristic mantles and temple locks, staff in hand, one is reminded of the patriarchs Abraham, Isaac, and Jacob. They occupy the southwestern portion of the city: whereas, the Christians reside chiefly in the western, and the Mohammedans in the eastern, including the Haram or temple-area. No Jew is allowed within this sacred enclosure; but just outside, on Friday evenings, they regularly assemble at what is known as the "Jews' Wailing-Place," and there together lament the downfall of their once glorious capital.

They repeat the seventy-ninth Psalm and the Lamentations of Jeremiah, and chant a sort of litany, which runs as follows: *Leader.*

GROUP OF LEPERS.

For the palace that lies desolate: *Response.* We sit in solitude and mourn: *L.* For the walls that are overthrown: *R.* We sit in solitude and mourn: *L.* For the



priests who have stumbled: *R.* We sit in solitude and mourn: *L.* For our kings who have despised Him: *R.* We sit in solitude and mourn:—one of the most touching sights to be seen in the Holy City.



MODERN JERICO.

Fifty years ago, the inhabitants of Jerusalem all lived within the city walls. Today nearly one-third reside in the suburbs outside. Great changes have taken place during this period: indeed, the past decade has transformed the aspect of the north and west sides of the city so completely that they are hardly recognizable. Churches, schools, hospitals, and hospices for the accommodation of pilgrims have multiplied with an astounding rapidity. Homes for the wealthier classes and dwellings for the Jews are reaching far out into the country. Christians and Jews are vying with one another in securing the choicest situations; all reminding us that whatever is to be done along archæological lines must be done immediately.

Growth of suburbs.

Many imagine that it must be heavenly to reside in the city of Jerusalem, and so betake themselves thence and settle down; but this feeling is too often dissipated by actual experiment. The dust of summer, the lack of water (for there is but one fountain in or near the city), the dearth of commerce and manufacture, but especially the surplusage of

Residence in Jerusalem.

philanthropy and religious zeal, which culminates too often in bitter strife, all combine to make the modern Jerusalem a most undesirable place of abode.

Nevertheless, there is no other city half as interesting to the Bible student. On right and left he is constantly reminded of Bible scenes. As he walks down from St.

INTERIOR OF MOSQUE EL AKSA.



Stephen's gate on the east side to visit the Garden of Gethsemane and the Mount of Olives, he beholds the lepers along the way and hears their husky cries of *bakshish, bakshish, 'atiny bakshish, Allah yatik*,—"a gift,

Machpelah, in which the three patriarchs were buried, is in the possession of the Moslems, and no Christian is allowed to enter except he obtain a special firman from the sultan. In the valley a little to the southwest of the mosque is a pool called the Birket es-Sultan, traditionally the pool by which David caused the murderers of Ishbosheth, the son of Saul, to be hanged. About a mile to the northwest, in a richly-cultivated valley of vineyards, is the ancient oak of Mamre, a scion possibly of Abraham's oak under which he entertained the angels, and close by it a Russian hospice for the accommodation of pilgrims. Hebron, though situated in a valley, is the highest town in altitude in all Judea.



NAZARETH GIRLS.

From Hebron it is possible to descend southeast to Jebel Usdum (Sodom?) at the southwest corner of the Dead sea: or southwest by the springs of Caleb to Beersheba, where are to be found the seven wells of the patriarchs, five of which now have water in them,

the other two being filled with stones and earth; but as both of these trips are attended with danger, most travelers return by the good carriage road.

Jericho and the Dead sea.

To make a visit to Jericho and the Dead sea until quite recently required special preparation. In the year 1888, and again in 1889, the writer was required to provide himself, through the American consulate, with a guard of Turkish soldiers to secure himself against the Bedouin Arabs of the Ghor, or Jordan valley. This is no longer necessary: indeed it is now possible to go to Jericho and the Jordan in carriage, there being a tolerably good highway for vehicles. Jericho itself is not a place of much importance, there being only a few cheaply built hotels, a Russian hospice, and a score or so of squalid Arab huts. It lies thirteen hundred feet below the level of the Mediterranean sea and thirty-eight hundred lower than Jerusalem, and consequently is exceedingly hot. There are really three Jerichos; the Jericho of Joshua by Elisha's fountain now in ruins, the Jericho of Jesus directly south of the former near the brook Cherith, and the modern Jericho which dates from the period of the Crusaders. The Dead sea lies about six miles to the southeast, supplied by the Jordan, whose swift current pours into it a considerable volume of muddy water, and carries with it fresh-water fish that die as soon as they become lost in the saline waters of the Dead sea. The river is rightly named "the descender."

WINNOWING—
"WHOSE FAN IS IN
HIS HAND."

Beyond Jordan.

Beyond Jordan lie the plains of Moab, Mount Nebo, and the Land of Gilead. One is loath to turn back without crossing over into these grassy and unfrequented parts, but unless the trip has been especially arranged for it would be too hazardous to attempt. Indeed, few dragoons are willing to undertake to conduct travelers through the regions east of Jordan and the Dead sea, much less to assay to visit the famous

rock-city of Petra, the capital of Edom. Yet no trip in all Palestine is so intensely interesting and no architecture half as magnificent as that of Petra, El Barid, Jerash, and Meshutta. Temples, palaces, and tombs are to be found at Petra cut out of the solid rock, and tinted by nature with a deep rose color, inimitable. Theaters and temple ruins are abundant.

But we must return to Jerusalem and prepare for the overland trip north through Samaria and Galilee to Damascus. A hasty review of the principal sights in the city will repay the traveler who wishes to carry away lasting impressions of the holy capital. At length the caravan has been brought together; the mules have been loaded with tents, provisions and baggage, and sent on a few hours ahead; the travelers are mounted on Arab horses, not any too strong, but shod for the hard stony roads which must be traveled, and the party, consisting of five, twenty, or sixty, as the case may be, is off for a two weeks' horseback ride through the country. The bridle-path as far as Shechem is a road worthy only of the Turk. Little wonder that new roads were in some cases specially made in anticipation of the German emperor's visit! After such an experience, one can better understand the command of the prophet as he cries: "Go through, go through the gates; prepare ye the way . . . gather out the stones, lift up a standard for the people" (Isa. 62:10).

Shechem is one of the most superstitious and uncivil of all the cities of Palestine. It resembles Hebron in this respect. The inhabitants are mostly Moslems, there being perhaps seven hundred Christians and one hundred and eighty survivors of the ancient "Samaritan" sect, among a population of about twenty-five thousand. Jacob's well and Joseph's tomb are passed one mile east of the city, as one approaches from the south.

Two hours to the northwest of Shechem stands the round hill of Sebastiyeh, covered with the ruins of what was once Samaria, the ancient capital of Omri and Ahab. Most interesting is the "Street of Columns," which, with temples and other ancient ruins, still graces that historic situation. The city was strongly fortified by nature, being situated high above the surrounding plain. As we left Samaria we saw men watch-



FISHER BOY.

Nablous, or Shechem.

Sebastiyeh.

STREET OF COLUMNS—SEBASTIYEH.



ing their flocks, and in one case a shepherd carrying a lamb.

Two easy days of horseback riding bring the traveler to the region of Galilee—the scene of our Lord's chief labors. The fine, rich plain of Esdraelon, which bounds Samaria on the north, and which may justly claim to be the great battle-field of history, is crossed before one reaches

The region of Galilee.

the Master's boyhood home at Nazareth. Jezreel, Shunem, Nain, and Endor are passed on the right. Mt. Tabor stands out conspicuous in the northeast. The range of Carmel bounds the vision on the southwest.

Nazareth.

A peculiar feeling thrills the Christian pilgrim as he climbs the hilly ascent to Nazareth. The little town is nestled among the hills. One surveys the horizon and then reflects upon the isolation and early influences of our Master's boyhood. He visits the carpenter's shop traditionally pointed out as His father's. He descends into the chapel of the Annunciation, returns, pauses at the village fountain, and is assured that, no matter whether all these other traditional spots be the identical ones or not, here at least, where all the village women come to draw water, is the fountain from which Mary doubtless filled her pitcher.

From Nazareth to
the Sea of Galilee.

After spending two days in Nazareth and a third in visiting Cana,

where the water was made into wine, the ascent of Tabor is undertaken, for here, according to the Greek and Latin churches, is the scene of the Transfiguration. In the afternoon of the same day a visit may be made to the Horns of Hattin, where the "Sermon on the Mount" was probably delivered, while an hour later finds the traveler nearing Tiberias and



"STREET CALLED
STRAIGHT"—
DAMASCUS.

overlooking the placid sea of Galilee. Before him lies the little village of Magdala, at his left the plain of Gennesaret, and beyond Tell Hum, the ruined city of Capernaum. How literally fulfilled is prophecy! But recently among the rubbish and thorns the Franciscans have built a small hospice and surrounded the ruins of the synagogue with a wall. Thus one after another the scenes of our Lord's ministry are eagerly seized upon.

Bible scenes.

As one pauses upon his horse to take in the picture, scenes pass before his vision which illustrate the story of the Gospel. Yonder the fishermen are casting their nets. Here the tares are being gathered from among the standing wheat to be burned with fire. Not far away the harvesters are reaping a hundred fold; some cutting the golden grain with sickles, others loading it upon asses to bear it home, while just outside the village the peasant Galilean, "whose fan is in his hand," is busy winnowing upon the threshing floor. How real the life of Jesus becomes!

On to Damascus.

After a row upon the sea, and a short ramble through the narrow and dirty streets of Tiberias, with perhaps a glimpse at the munificently-equipped hospital of the Free Church Scottish Mission, we bid farewell to Galilee and climb the rugged hills leading up by Chorazin and the Lake Marshes of Merom to Dan and Baniyas (Cæsarea Philippi); then after two more days we reach Damascus,—the oldest city in the world still peopled, and the largest and most important city of Palestine. This was the city of Naaman, of Benhadad and Antiochus. The Arabs call it "the eye of the desert," and "the pearl of the east." It is a genuine paradise from the oriental point of view because of the abundance of its water and shade. Two hundred thousand people throng its streets. Camels and carriages crowd "the Street called Straight," causing one to query which will give place to the other as the city becomes more civilized. Immense

barracks have recently been built outside the city near the railway station. A walk through the bazaars of silk, silver, rugs, draperies, saddles, sweets and perfumes, is sure to enchant the visitor and instruct him in the customs and character of genuine oriental life.

The "Forbidden Land of Og."

From Damascus excursions are occasionally made into the Hauran, or land of Bashan, but not usually with the permission of the Turkish government. The Druses, who especially occupy those parts, are hostile to all foreigners,—Europeans and Turks alike,—and it is wiser usually not to make the venture. The writer, with a companion, in the month of May (1900), succeeded in accomplishing the hazardous journey by donning the costume of the country, and by throwing himself upon the hospitality of the natives. The attempt was wonderfully successful. The ruined stone villages of Argob, the cities of Bosra, Salchad, Edrei, and 'Ashtaroth, and the plains of the "granary of Palestine" were of unique interest.



A HEAVY LOAD.

A short distance northeast of the fine French carriage road which leads from Damascus over the Lebanons to Beirut, and about midway between these two important cities, are the ruins of Baalbek. In one respect these ruins are the most marvelous in the world. No such colossal stones are to be found elsewhere in any of the temples of giants or men. Three immense stones, each approximately sixty-three feet long, thirteen feet in height, and probably as many thick, have been brought from quarries a mile distant, and raised to the top of a substructure already twenty-three feet high.

To Baalbek.

Leaving Baalbek, and climbing to the summit of the main range of Mt. Lebanon, the Mediterranean and the plain about Beirut come into view. There in the bosom of St. George's Bay lies a city of 100,000 souls,—the commercial metropolis of Syria. Beirut is the port of Damascus and is now connected with it by a narrow-gauge railroad. It is also a city of schools and colleges. Some have called it the "Oxford of the Orient," because it can boast of over 100 educational institutions, and 12,000 students.

Beirut.



Out on the extreme end of the rocky promontory stands, in conspicuous view of all incoming steamers, the Lighthouse of the Turkish Empire—the Syrian Protestant College. It was founded in 1864, chartered by the legislature of the state of New York, and is supported by private contributions. It has this year upwards of five hundred men students in its various departments—preparatory, commercial, collegiate, and medical. Thirty-one professors and in-

The Syrian Protestant College.

BIG STONE AT BAALBEK.

structors adorn its teaching staff. Twelve imposing stone buildings grace its beautiful campus. Its standard would cause some of our home institutions to blush. The much revered and venerable Dr. Daniel Bliss has been

THE BEACH AT
BEIRUT—SYRIAN
PROTESTANT
COLLEGE IN THE
DISTANCE.



its only president—a man whose genial character charms the traveler who has the time to devote a visit of two hours to this Christian oasis before quitting the home of Islam.



Review Questions.

1. By what two routes may Palestine be approached? 2. What is the ordinary route through the country? 3. What is the language of Palestine? 4. Mention some of the chief names associated in history with Jerusalem. 5. What are the principal sights in the Holy City? 6. Mention some of the scenes in Palestine which illustrate the Bible. 7. Describe the chief buildings in the temple area. 8. What are the principal places of interest in Hebron? 9. Where is the plain of Esdraelon? 10. For what are the Horns of Hattin famous? 11. Describe life in the city of Damascus. 12. For what is the modern city of Beirut remarkable?

Search Questions.

1. Look up the walls of ancient Jerusalem; wherein did their courses differ from those of today? 2. Who are the Samaritans of Nablous, and what their history? 3. Which mountains are claimed as the true place of the Transfiguration? 4. Where is Petra, and what entire book of prophecy is directed against its inhabitants? 5. What great battle was fought at Edrei? 6. Who are the Druses? 7. Why is it forbidden to travel through the land of Og? 8. How old are the ruined temples and acropolis of Baalbek? 9. Who built Palmyra? 10. What was the population of Galilee in the time of Christ, according to Josephus? 11. What are the chief doctrines of Mohammedanism? 12. What cities of Palestine are situated on the seacoast?

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CRITICAL STUDIES IN FRENCH LITERATURE.*

IV. LYRISTS AND LYRICS OF OLD FRANCE.

BY JAMES A. HARRISON.

(Professor in the University of Virginia.)

"I sometimes think that never blows so red
The Rose as where some buried Caesar bled;
That every Hyacinth the Garden wears
Dropt in her lap from some once lovely head."
—Omar Khayyam.

NE HUNDRED poets are enumerated for France in the thirteenth century. The south of France during this and the preceding century swarmed with troubadours; but with this nest of night-ingales we have nothing to do: these joyous singers appertain to the Spanish-Catalan-Italian group of a region which, even now, after hundreds of years, is not French and must be studied separately, as Scotland must be studied separately in English literature, or Platt-Deutsch in German literature. Very delightful this study would be if we had time for it; but we must hurry on to the course marked out for us this year, the study of one or two particular periods or aspects of French literature.

Dotted along the darkness between the thirteenth and the seventeenth centuries are certain luminous spots where the literary may well stop and learn,—spots which are above dreary wastes of prose and verse—single names that glow in high light where all else and all around is cloud or darkness. It would have been a relief to some people if the poets had altogether stopped rhyming in France between these centuries as they did in England between the "Canterbury Tales" and "The Faërie Queene;" but the French nature babbles on, is garrulous, talkative, verse-loving, teased by chattering instincts, and attracted by verbal ingenuities. So, during all these four hundred years, its lips went on moving as in dream-haunted slumber: it talked incessantly in its sleep, composed versified sermons, rhymed proverbs, poetical codes and "contentions": all of which resulted in one good thing, at least: it made a wonderfully fine, polished, expressive language which invaded the European courts and established itself in Germany, England, and Italy as a court language.

Four centuries of poetry.

It is in the fourteenth century, with Jean Froissart (1337-1410), the great historian of the Hundred Years' war between England and France, that the French language, before chaotic, shapes itself in such a way that prose and song in the modern sense became possible in it. Froissart is chiefly celebrated as a writer of quaint and delightful prose which Lord Berners has translated into English, and Sidney Lanier has edited for boys and girls. He commanded a lively and vivid gift of speech with which he described battles and adventures and tournaments in prose as richly colored as that of Plutarch or Herodotus, but also this old knight-chronicler had a hankering after verse, and scribbled graceful and charming poems. Light, musical, tinkling lays and roundelays fell from his pen and celebrated a "lady fair" to whom he and his contemporaries were always singing—allegorically—in stanza and triolet, on which the dews of the early French tongue still hang and tremble. Froissart's freshness is perennial: no more fascinating reading exists than his

Prose and poetry of Froissart.

Musical lays and roundelays.

* No. 1, "The Song of Roland," appeared in the October CHAUTAUQUAN; No. 2, "Montaigne and Essay Writing in France" in the November CHAUTAUQUAN; No. 3, "Tartuffe: A Typical Comedy of Molière" in the December CHAUTAUQUAN.

chronicles with their sprinkling of song: it is the one French book of the century to fix on, digest, assimilate, for the poetry of the time sparkles in his poetic prose and pours itself forth profusely in his many-colored, multi-sounding, sonorous pages where drum and bugle sound, banners toss, knights shout, and horses neigh. One is at a great pageant in them, spectacular, glowing, pictorial, bright as a great battle-picture suddenly transfused with life, breathing, blowing, exulting. All France of that brilliant, miserable time is turned loose in this man's work,—and all England, too: he was the contemporary of Wyclif and Boccaccio, Petrarch and the Persian poet Hafiz, and he survived Chaucer ten years. The battles of Crécy (1346) and Poitiers (1356) took place when he was a boy; he saw Wat Tyler's insurrection (1381), and just missed the battle of Agincourt (1415). He saw and felt enough to make a wonderfully picturesque narrative and to lay the broad and deep foundations of French prose which afterwards distanced all other modern prose, and is now the model and example of lucid and perfect diction—a diction whose source is in Froissart, the writer of one poem at least forty to fifty thousand lines long!

Alain Chartier, a prolific rhymester.

Alain Chartier (1386–1458) is another poetical presence to which one may devote a few words in this swift survey, a man celebrated for his ugliness and prolixity, his gift of rhythm, his “fatal facility” in writing interlaced and double rhymes instead of couplets. Stacks of his manuscript are said to lie unprinted in the French libraries, too numerous and too voluminous for any but a nation to print. Marot—the great Clément—thought him the glory of Normandy.

Variety of verse forms.

It was the fashion of these amiable times—following the Provençal lyric architects, who built labyrinths in verse—to write ballades, rondeaux, rondels, roundelays, virolais, lais, pastourelles, chants royaux, triolets, villanelles, équivoquées, and the like: charming little verbal, musical ingenuities, at least preferable, say what we will, to bulky epics like the “Roman du Chevalier as deux Espées,” “Durmart le Gallois,” “Baudouin de Sebourc and Bartard de Bouillon,” twelve thousand, sixteen thousand and thirty-three thousand verses in length. An author in those days—the prolix days of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries—thought nothing of reeling off a *roman d'aventures* in verse from ten to twenty thousand lines long. Any effort to abbreviate this epidemic of verbosity of course became popular, while the extreme difficulty of constructing verse in the new forms so delicately complex checked prolixity and helped the new poets who practised these meters into popularity. One of these was this Alain Chartier, of whose verse Princess Margaret of Scotland became so enamored that she stooped and kissed the homely poet as he slept! Even then, the frolic French genius was putting forth its sprouts and tendrils, and climbing heavenward over the balconies of its “ladye-love,” and draping and hanging and festooning them with caressing dawn-songs, serenades, refrains, and envois—some caught up by Chaucer and transferred to English in delightfully quaint form.

Rise of the short poem.

These short poems of fifteen or thirty lines in length proved so appetizing that one poet—Eustache Deschamps—wrote nearly twelve hundred ballads alone, and a perfect Brazilian forest of rondeaux, virolais and so on; and in this mischievous opulence he was helped by his contemporary, Machault; the two together writing two hundred thousand lines. Rivers of rhetoric flowed from their lips, good, bad, and indifferent, and they never stopped to consider whether they were running nonsense or not. Medieval Germany witnessed a kindred phenomenon of intolerable verbiage, flowering and flowing from the infructuous brains of Walther von der Vogelweide, Gottfried von Strassburg, W. von Eschenbach, and Hans Sachs, one of these intellectual freaks dictating an enormous epic still in existence, without knowing how to read or write.

These Dryasdusts pleased the age, however, fulfilled their mission, and soon rotted out of remembrance, leaving behind only a rich alluvium, out of which the drama and modern lyric verse were to spring under the warm touch of Corneille and Victor Hugo. An anthology of very lovely fragments may, however, be culled out of this disordered and diseased affluence—stray flowers blooming along the way as the middle ages were gradually drawing to a close. English poets of this century have been strangely fascinated by these naïve, graceful, light-hearted French poets of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, and we have charming translations of their work by Andrew Lang, Swinburne, Longfellow, Rossetti, Payn, and Gosse, some of which I will briefly quote. There is yet no Dante in France, no Geoffrey of the grave feature and laughing eye on his pilgrimage to the shrine of St. Thomas à Becket, but there are plenty of minor poets—*dii minores*—who, like the Greek Simonides, have sung stray snatches of song that possess a quality of immortality about them, that hang about the memory with teasing, unperishing music and pertinacity, and that somehow get themselves remembered and repeated and translated, and then transfix the mind like barbed arrows, striking there, not to be torn out.

Source of modern lyrics.

France and Italy were the heart of the Crusade movement: it was natural, therefore, that their early poetry should be dominantly religious, "other-worldly," solemn, allegorical. As soon as these thunder clouds began to break and their edges to shimmer golden in the rosy light of the Renaissance, in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, the larks began to carol and sing real lyrics at heaven's gates; the poets dropped parable and purgatory and sung love and life and women and wine; the bursting grape recalled Anacreon; pageant and revelry awoke in dumb castle and silent château; minstrels slung their harps and viols over their shoulders and wandered like Blondel and Richard the Lionhearted from land to land, and ladies leaned from their balconies to welcome them.

Religious poetry superseded by livelier forms.

This infinite business with little things so characteristic of the time is only occasionally broken by a ripple of greater ones: the twitter and trilling and *cantabile* running up and down minor chords are occasionally interrupted by the appearance of a more pretentious voice, a more original talent, a more delicate genius. Such are Christine de Pisane (d. 1431), Charles d'Orléans, the first of those wonderful Valois princes who gave such literary fruition to France, Brasselin de Vire (1350–1450), Maitre de Paris (1450–1508), and François Villon (1460?–).

Five original French poets.

The tide is gradually rising in France with these men and women and other men and women closely associated in contemporary bonds with them. Each of these five is a type. Christine is the literary woman—the *précieuse*—the *femme savante* of her time, two hundred and fifty years before Molière conceived her writing moral sermons and edifying sentiments in verse for the benefit of her son, an Italian woman making her living by writing French verse—a Tupper in petticoats, scribbling aphorisms.

Christine de Pisane, the literary woman.

Charles d'Orléans is the type of the accomplished prince-poet, excelling all the rhymesters of his period in versatile and elegant achievement: more like those refined and courtly Medicean patricians over the Alps, who made Florence the envy and apple of the world's eye.

Charles d'Orléans, royal poet.

In Brasselin de Vire another type crops up—"the mighty drinker and good singer," the merry, boisterous, musical drunkard whose potations are perpetually mingled with poetry, who hiccougs and rhymes intermittently—a jolly fifteenth-century French Anacreon, who reincarnates himself in many a melodious renascent form like Burns, Béranger, and Wilhelm Müller. France is not overfull of these charming Robin Goodfellows, and for this reason one should study carefully so genial a phenomenon.

Brasselin de Vire, a French Anacreon.

Villon is a new and exquisite type, who influenced Marot and then La

François Villon, the
exquisite poet.

Fontaine, and, in certain lines, all after generations in a direction as original as that taken by certain Italian artists like Benvenuto Cellini, who, instead of carving large statues like Michelangelo's "Moses," or rearing a mighty dome like Brunelleschi's in Florence, took a goblet of gold or ivory and wrought it all over with delicate chiseled shapes that seem spun of spiders on edges of sunset cloud or silver mist—a mid-summer night's dream of dainty, changeful sprites that dance and revel in the blue-pale midnight around the lip of the cup.

Supposed to have
been a thief.

Villon's name is thought to indicate that he was morally a villain in whose toad-like nature sparkled this living jewel of poetic genius. He was said to have been an incorrigible thief, who spent much of his time in prison, there cutting and carving and polishing the gem-like poems he has left behind him,—poems the sparkle of which Rossetti and Lang and Payn have in our time vainly tried to reproduce in our unmelodious English. The exhaling sweetness and languor of that old French tongue are most hard to catch—so debonair, so quaint, so pathetic, smiling in Villon's fingers, always through tears, and ever wonderfully suggestive of more things than it expresses.

Poems composed in
prison.

Always in these poems we seem to catch the poet looking from behind prison blinds: a great sadness overspreads some of them: they are the intellectual salvage of a moral wreck, tossed and tumbled about amid the vicissitudes of a time when bread was hard to get and men stole. Villon stole, too, and got into prison, where he sang not like those other illustrious prison-exiles, Ovid and Boethius and Charles d'Orléans and James of Scotland and Sir Walter Raleigh; not like Voltaire in the Bastille, or Cervantes in captivity, or Tasso in a dungeon; but only like himself, Villon, the miserable, the gifted, the stunted in conscience, the seared in moral sense, the gifted with poetic fire.

Not worse than
many others.

There have been natures like his: some think of Edgar Allan Poe in this connection, and there were drunken Elizabethans who alternated orgies of song and sack; but Villon is quite unique—the typical "sad, bad boy" of the dawning Renaissance, only half-clad in extenuating circumstance and altogether naked to the darts of malice. His poetry and his villainy combined to make him a piquant figure, throwing half light, half shadow, as he stands on the edge of the new time, a man not above committing a murder—like Benvenuto Cellini, to whom I have likened him—and then sitting down to write a beautiful poem about it. One drinks alternate honey and vinegar in quaffing the stanzas of this strange, dual genius, the Jekyll and Hyde of the Valois era—whose midnight cloud was edged with silver—a saint lined with Satan. How many men of genius—poets, moralists, historians, orators of the faint and far past—whose writings we intensely admire, whose lives and maxims we repeat with appetency,—may have been just as bad as Villon—perhaps worse—murderers, torturers, tramps, thieves, villains; and yet because their records have not happened to come down to us, they sail on silken seas of innocence, breathing airs of heaven and blowing delectable odors through our memories!

Poor Villon! We know too much about *you*—that is all: would that we knew less! If you broke all the commandments and spat on the decalogue, at least you left a lovely legacy of most perfect verse that puts all your revilers to shame, as fine in its way as that with which old white-haired Sophocles confronted his ungrateful children when they threw him into prison on the charge of insanity. If there were more thieves and villains like Villon—!



[From Professor Harrison's remarkable collection of translations of the French verse of these early centuries by famous poets, it is possible to present herewith a number of typical illustrations of the material forming the subject of this "Critical Study."—EDITOR.]

FROM CLOTILDE DE SURVILLE.

Take, child — thy father's image — take repose
 Upon the bosom that thy lips have pressed:
 Sleep, little one: at last let slumber close
 Those restless eyes upon thy mother's breast.

Rest, little one: let softer, sweeter sleep
 Weigh down thine eyes than ever falls on me:
 Thee to protect my sleepless watch I keep —
 Ah! sweet it is to waken — sweet — for thee.

Sleep, baby, sleep, my idol and my care:
 My breast thy pillow and thy bed I lay:
 Hush! baby voice I loved just now to hear,
 And smiles I loved just now, cease, cease to play.

Sleep, darling: thou shalt wake and smile once more:
 Smile in a fond reply to my fond gaze:
 See how he knows me with his childish love;
 And in my eyes has learned his own to trace.

He drops his arms: sleep weighs his eyelids down:
 Stilled, silent: see — he hardly draws his breath;
 And but for those bright hues of red and brown,
 Might one deem — almost — this the sleep of death.

Ah! darling, wake; I tremble with affright:
 To chase this fatal thought, wake, wake once more:
 My child, awake; one moment see the light;
 And at the cost of thine, my peace restore.
 — *From Besant's "Early French Poetry."*

FROM FROISSART.

Take time while yet it is in view,
 For Fortune is a fickle fair:
 Days fade, and others spring anew:
 Then take the moment still in view.
 What boots to toil and cares pursue?
 Each month a new moon hangs in air:
 Take then the moment still in view,
 For Fortune is a fickle fair.
 — *From Longfellow's "Poetry of Europe."*

MY FATHER'S CLOSE.

(Old French.)

Inside my father's close,
 (Fly away, O my heart, away!)
 Sweet apple-blossom blows
 So sweet.

Three king's daughters fair,
 (Fly away, O my heart, away!)
 They lie below it there
 So sweet.

"Ah!" says the eldest one,
 (Fly away, O my heart, away!)
 "I think the day's begun
 So sweet."

"Ah!" says the second one,
 (Fly away, O my heart, away!)
 "Far off I hear the drum
 So sweet."

"Ah!" says the youngest one,
 (Fly away, O my heart, away!)
 "It's my true love, my own,
 So sweet."

"Oh! if he fight and win!"
 (Fly away, O my heart, away!)

"I keep my love for him,
 So sweet:

"Oh! let him lose or win,
 He hath it still complete!"

— *D. G. Rossetti.*

FROM CHRISTINE DE PISANE.

(On the death of her father.)

O that his grave for me had room
 Where I at length might calmly rest!
 For all to me is saddest gloom,
 All scenes appear to me unblest.
 And all my hope is in his tomb,
 To lay my head on his cold breast,
 Who left his child naught else to love, —
 A mourning dove!
 — *From Longfellow's "Poetry of Europe."*

FROM VILLON.

Queen of the skies and regent of the earth;
 Empress of all that dwells beneath;
 Receive me, poor and low, of little worth,
 Among thy chosen after death.
 Nothing I bring with me; nothing I have:
 But yet thy mercy, Lady, is as great
 As all my sum of sins: beyond the grave,
 Without thy mercy, none can ask of fate
 To enter heaven; and without guile or lie
 I in thy faith will faithful live and die.

Only a woman, humble, poor, and old;
 Letters I read not; nothing know;
 But see in church with painted flames of gold
 That Hell where all the wicked go:
 And, joyous with glad harps, God's Paradise.
 One fills my heart with fear; one with delight.
 For sinners all may turn repentant eyes
 To thee, O Lady, merciful and bright,
 With faith downladen — without guile or lie
 I in thy faith will faithful live and die.

— *From Besant's "Early French Poetry."*

FROM ALAIN CHARTIER.

(La Belle Dame Sans Mercy.)

I heard the lover sighing wonder sore,
 For aye the more the sorer it him sought; —
 His inward pain he could not keep in store,
 Nor for to speak so hardie was he wrought.
 His leech was rare, the greater was his thought,
 He mused sore his conquest to desire;
 For no man may to more penance be brought
 Than in his heat to bring him to the fire.

— *Attributed to Chaucer.*

TO DEATH, OF HIS LADY.

Death, of thee do I make my moan,
 Who hadst my lady away from me,
 Nor wilt assuage thine enmity
 Till with her life thou hast mine own;
 For since that hour my strength has flown,
 Lo! what wrong was her life to thee,
 Death?

Two we were, and the heart was one;
 Which now being dead, dead I must be,
 Or seem alive as lifelessly
 As in the choir the painted stone,
 Death!

— *D. G. Rossetti.*

VILLON.

(From the Grand Testament, stanzas XL. and XLI.)

"And Paris be it or Helen dying,
 Who dies soever, dies with pain.
 He that lacks breath and wind for sighing,
 His gall bursts on his heart; and then
 He sweats, God knows what sweat! again,
 No man may ease him of his grief;
 Child, brother, sister, none were fain
 To bail him thence for his relief."

"Death makes him shudder, swoon, wax pale,
 Nose bend, veins stretch, and breath surrender,
 Neck swell, flesh soften, joints that fail
 Crack their strained nerves and arteries slender.
 O woman's body found so tender,
 Smooth, sweet, so precious in men's eyes.
 Must thou too bear such count to render?
 Yes, or pass quick into the skies."

—Swinburne.

LE RENOUVEAU: CHARLES D'ORLÉANS.

("Le temps a laissé son manteau.")

"Now Time throws off his cloak again
 Of ermin'd frost, and cold and rain,
 And clothes him in the embroidery
 Of glittering sun and clear blue sky.
 With beast and bird the forest rings,
 Each in his jargon cries or sings:
 And Time throws off his cloak again
 Of ermin'd frost, and cold and rain."

River, and fount, and tinkling brook
 Wear in their dainty livery
 Drops of silver jewelry;
 In new-made suit they merry look;
 And Time throws off his cloak again
 Of ermin'd frost, and cold and rain."

THE INNER LIFE OF COROT.*

✠ ✠ BY ADELIA A. FIELD JOHNSTON. ✠ ✠

(Professor of Medieval History, Oberlin College).



ONLY a genuinely good man dares to say unreservedly what he thinks, and when such a man speaks, the world listens, no matter what he says or how he says it. He may give expression to his thought through the living word, through pen, brush, or chisel. He may frame his thought into moral law, poetry, or fiction; he may say what men want to hear or what they do not want to hear; what they believe, or what they do not believe, but because they recognize the value of honest thought they give heed to his message, and, often against their will, are influenced by it.

No better example of the carrying power of simple honesty when united with genius can be found than is shown in the life of Jean Baptiste Camille Corot, the landscape painter, *par excellence*, of the nineteenth century. Born in Paris, July 20, 1796, he found the art world bound by the arbitrary and conventional rules of the classic school. Corot was by nature a timid man, and in no sense fitted to be a reformer. He was sensitive to criticism and dreaded controversy, but he could not accept methods that seemed to him false, and this loyalty to honest conviction kept him from sacrificing his true art instincts, and left him untrammelled to work them out into methods that finally placed him first among that brilliant constellation of landscape painters known as the Fontainebleau-Barbizon school.

Corot's genius and honesty.

One hesitates to single out even Corot and call him first when the comparison must be made between such masters of landscape as Rousseau, Daubigny, Millet and Diaz. Without doubt each of these could do some things with his brush better than Corot, who never attempted to interpret nature in all her moods. Look over his canvas and you will not find the sun at high noon. The thunder storm, the cloud-capped mountain, the wild, foaming cataract are never his theme. It is gentle nature that he loves, evening and morning, mists and rising vapors, dewy meadows and clear lakes that reflect all lovely things that grow upon their margin. Trees are his delight, not the stately palm or grand old oak, gnarled and strengthened by the winter's storm, but trees with delicate branches and leaves that tremble in the breeze. His favorite time is not autumn, with its wealth of color, but spring, with half-grown leaves still soft with winter's down.

He loved gentle nature.

*This is the fourth CHAUTAUQUAN study of the Inner Life of Historic Figures in France and Greece. Fenelon, by Charles M. Stuart, appeared in October; Pascal, by Naphthalen, appeared in November; Madame Guyon, by Jesse L. Hurlbut, appeared in December.

Corot may not paint the human form as well as some of his brother artists, and certainly his awkward cows suffer in comparison with the brown-eyed, gentle creatures of Troyon's brush; but he painted atmosphere as no other artist ever painted it—atmosphere that lies cool and limpid in the valleys or shimmers on the hillsides—atmosphere in which trees stand and nymphs dance. You half believe the master has been endowed with an extra sense, for nature never revealed herself to you after this fashion. So you go out to see God's world, and, thanks to Corot, it is a new creation. You went out with interrogation, and wish to criticize; you come in with glad exclamation and a delicious sense of new values. You become intimate with nature, and she repays you by telling you her secrets. Now you find that the difference between you and Corot is that he discovered the secrets of nature first. The marked peculiarity of his landscapes is their unity, a unity that is restful. He does not paint in his landscape a dozen objects equally distinct, and leave you confused as to what he wishes to bring to your notice. If you would see a landscape as Corot sees it, step to your window and look definitely at one object in the distance—it may be a tree, a patch of sunshine on a meadow, or a moving figure. Keep your eye fixed on the object and note how indistinctly you see all other objects that come within your range of vision. This is the way Corot dared to represent nature on canvas. He was met by a storm of criticism and derision. The classicists insisted that every object in the landscape should be equally distinct, ignoring the fact that this would give as many centers to the picture as there were separate objects. Corot was disappointed, but, because he had the courage that comes from strong conviction, he did not doubt for a moment that in the end he would triumph. Then followed long years of waiting, but they were not years of idleness, and while he diligently worked in his studio,—now in Paris, now in Ville d'Avray,—no bitter word escaped him, no unkind thought found lodgment in his heart. He sang while he painted, and often a smile played about his sensitive mouth. It was fortunate that Corot's father was able to leave him a modest patrimony that supported him during these years. His first picture was sold in 1841, and in 1844 Thoré, an appreciative art critic, wrote: "If the chief purpose of painting is to communicate to others the impression felt by the artist before nature, the landscape of Corot fulfills the condition of art." Thoré referred to a picture exhibited in the Salon that year called simply "Landscape."

Restful unity in his landscapes.

In 1846 Corot was appointed a "Chevalier of the Legion of Honor." Even after this he did not at once meet with general favor, but the triumph came, as he believed it would come, and when all the pictures were sold, and the orders came faster than he could meet them, he modestly said, "It is not that I paint better than I did, nor is it I who have changed, but only that my principles have triumphed." And who was Corot? A humble man of humble parentage, a good son, who, after he left school, consented to spend six years of his precious life in a draper's shop rather than disappoint his father, whose ambition it was to see his son become a successful tradesman; an affectionate son, who, when he became great as the world counts greatness, never failed to keep the habit of his youth and spend an evening hour with his mother. No company was so brilliant as to make him forget, when the clock struck nine, that his mother was waiting for him. And more than this, he was a genuine friend who had a helping hand and a sympathizing word for those who needed them; a kind neighbor whom all the children loved and called "Père Corot." And he was a patriot who was devoted to his country. When, at the close of the Franco-Prussian war, the days of humiliation came, and France found herself in debt and her people impoverished, he poured out his wealth with no stinted hand. He begged the government to buy back Alsace and offered to head the subscription.

An affectionate son.

A true patriot.

Then when more money was needed he said: "Tax everything, tax my paint brushes, for they can do no better service. Without my country I should not be able to paint any more, and make my little branches in the sky with the atmosphere so the swallows may pass. It appears to me I should very soon die."

The admirers of Corot have often spoken of him as poet and musician, and with reason, for there is rhythm in his color and harmony in his composition. These are the subtle charms that make us forget his technique, and mark him as a genius. Delacroix said of him, "He's not a landscapist, he's a painter, a true painter; he's a rare and exceptional genius." It was a sweet, clean life that Corot lived, he had nothing in common with gay, dissolute Paris. In his later years he was courted and saw much of the world, but he was never of it. His mother was to him the most beautiful of women; her death the greatest affliction of his life. His sister was his constant companion and adviser, and then—he had his art. He seems never to have been lonely; he loved Paris, the little village D'Avray where he spent his summers, and the woods of Fontainebleau. Many of his landscapes are memories rather than places, and we do not regret this, for it is Corot we want when we study his landscapes,—his way of interpreting nature. We ask him how to him sunshine looks when it floods a tree-top, how the mists gather at twilight over quiet lakes, how atmosphere palpitates against the low-lying hillsides. We do not ask where this tree, this lake, this hillside are, for they are not the important things in Corot's landscapes; they are only the background that enables him to show the subtle beauty his eyes see and his soul feels.

It may seem strange to compare Fra Angelico and Corot, for two men could not seem to be more unlike—the one a recluse, often painting his sweet saints and angels while tears coursed down his cheeks and words of penitent prayer fell from his lips—the other never so happy as when surrounded by friends, always singing when at work, and getting keen delight out of planning big Christmas baskets for all the children of the neighborhood. And yet the difference is the difference between the dates 1375 and 1796, rather than a radical difference in the character of the two men. Both were true to their highest ideals, both were intensely religious by nature,—the one bound by church rules and forms,—the other freed from all conventionalities, but both feeling the great spiritual forces of the universe.

It is no light praise to say that Corot had a ripe old age, for only good men can have that happy fortune. He died in his seventy-ninth year almost with brush in hand. As an artist the last ten years of his life were his best years. He came nearer and nearer his own ideals, which meant in the case of Corot that he came nearer and nearer to the heart of nature. It may be, as some critics say, that during these last years he paid less attention to form, but then he told us what the blades of grass say, and what the winds whisper to each other.

How easily he passed into the next world! We can hardly tell whether his last words come from this side or the far side of the river. "Today Père Corot will breakfast above." "It makes one happy to know one has been so loved. I have had good parents and dear friends. I am thankful to God." Then, with eye brightening as if he saw a new vision,—“How beautiful that is, the most beautiful landscape I have ever seen! How I shall love to paint it!” And Corot walked no more among the children of men.



Lived a pure life

A great lover of children.

Had a ripe old age.

End of
Required Reading.

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THE CHANCELLOR'S GREETING.

From my new "study" in Zürich, through the "Round Table" I send new century greeting to the members of our dear old C. L. S. C. Looking backward I feel like writing "memories;" looking forward I dream of "ideals." I let the dead Past go. The Ideal is the Real. The temporal, the visible, the attained—may be a step, a stage, a pledge, an "earnest," as Paul puts it. But beyond and above us is the ideal life. It is the life of the unseen spiritual world, the life of eternal principles, the life of consummations, the perfect life. The reflection of that life in the imagination, warming the heart, receiving the consent of the will, imparting the enthusiasm and courage of hope—this is the ideal that is real. It holds power and comfort. "Ideals are our better selves." They are "the world's masters."

But to get practical results from ideals we must keep our feet on *terra firma*. If we are rooted in common sense the more we idealize the better, the more is this life worth to us, the larger, the more interesting, the more fruitful. While we dream, there must be that obedience to our dream that Victor Hugo calls its "visible unfolding." It is practical

surrender to the "heavenly vision" that makes the ideal real. Then Imagination is well anchored in wisdom.

The C. L. S. C. has always made much of this element. It has depended upon this for enthusiasm. We are "students." We are

members of the "university" of life. The whole world and all the ages are ours. We plod, but we also soar. It may be in the kitchen, in the dusty field, on freight train, in the sweltering heat of the furnace, in the nursery, or amidst the restrictions and conventionalities and superficialities of "fashionable" life—all of which may tend to our degradation; but in spite of all this over our heads behold the sky with its "bright vault and sapphire wall"—the dome of our university! It may be that we are in a chamber



JOHN H. VINCENT,

of sickness—in palace, hospital or tenement-house, with hours of pain and languishing, but here choirs of angels are in hiding, and now and then at midnight, or in the heart of the day, they hum sweet melodies that soothe us, or break into songs that enrapture us.

Therefore, keep up the conception of "college" and "university." Let the roseate hues of Fancy tinge our commonplace everyday life. Professor O. M. Mitchell, the

astronomer, giving some personal experiences in the observatory, says: "The busy morning *hum* rises on the still air and reaches the watching-place of the solitary astronomer." So let the music of the spheres steal down to transmute into sweet music the humdrum of our daily life.

Keep up in the C. L. S. C. the "college outlook," the class spirit, the class mottoes, the class songs, the "memorial days," gates and arches, banners and flower girls and all the



VIEW NEAR SKAGUAY, ALASKA.

restful things that like flowers give color and fragrance, and like song-birds -- music to the monotonies and burdens and weariness of life.

And above all, "let us keep our Heavenly Father in the midst," that the follies and sins of the past may not drive us to despair, the "cares of this world" stifle the nobler life within us, or too constant thinking about ourselves burden the hearts that God meant to pulsate perpetually with desire and resolve in the interest of our fellow men!

Faithfully your friend,
JOHN H. VINCENT.

Zürich, Switzerland,
Eidmatt strasse 38,
November 1, 1900.



AN ALASKA CHAUTAUQUAN.

The outposts of civilization have always proved attractive to Chautauqua students. Whether it is because isolated men and women become C. L. S. C. readers so as to

make their lives more interesting, or because Chautauquans generally are an enterprising race, the fact remains that they have been witnesses unto the C. L. S. C. in the remotest parts of the earth. Years ago when the missionary ship *The Morning Star* made her annual visit to the Caroline Islands, Captain Bray and his wife carried the C. L. S. C. books with them. On the island of Kusaie, one of the Caroline group, was a fellow Chautauquan, a member of the Class of '90, who in her isolated life found her Chautauqua associations a living link with the great world which she had left behind. Another member of this same Class of '90 has recently reported from Skaguay, Alaska, a point nearly seventeen hundred miles north of San Francisco and one of the gateways to the great mineral region of the north. The town itself is only three years old, yet it has made creditable growth in an educational way, and, as might be expected, our graduate is a member of a literary club which is studying one of the Shakespeare Special Courses in the C. L. S. C. The illustration gives an idea of the scenery of this wonderful country, as described by Mrs. Treen, "lofty peaks tower above us, some covered with eternal snows, and glimpses of glaciers glittering blue and cold in the sunshine are seen on the slopes of the higher peaks." Like most frontier towns, the population tends to be migratory, but it is hoped that a Chautauqua circle may be reported among the permanent residents by another year.



THE CLASS OF 1901.

"Joy to the laughing troop
That from the threshold starts,
Led on by courage and immortal hope,
And with the morning in their hearts.

* * * * *
Their merry task shall be
To make the house all fine and sweet
Its new inhabitants to greet,
The wondrous dawning century."

—E. R. SILL.

Nineteen Hundred and One is the first C. L. S. C. class to graduate in the new century, and its members are already feeling the importance of their position to the classes that are to come after them. Let no loyal 1901 fall by the way for want of a little good cheer from the rest of the rank and file. If you are a 1901 and well up with your work, stir up every lagging classmate that you know and spur him on to the goal. If you are behind, never lose hope. Look the future fairly in the face, lay out a sched-

ule of work that will bring you through by October 1, and then, if possible, follow it up. The summer months offer opportunities for regaining much lost ground, and it is worth while to omit for a time some other desirable reading, that you may have the satisfaction of carrying out your resolution made four years ago. There is no time quite so good for making new resolutions and renewing old ones, as the beginning of a new century, and it is the only experience of the kind which any of us can hope to have. If you are a member of 1902 or 1903 or 1904 and there are 1901's in your circle, let them know that you expect them to graduate and inspire them by your confidence in their high purpose. The graduation of any member is something which concerns us all. If you are an old graduate, urge the advantages of being a member of the S. H. G. But whoever you are, do your share in holding up Chautauqua ideals, and everyone about you will be the gainer from your efforts.

No book is worth anything which is not worth *much*; nor is it serviceable, until it has been read and reread and loved and loved again; and marked, so that you can refer to the passages you want in it, as the soldier can seize the weapon he needs in an armory, or a housewife bring the spice she needs from her store.—*Ruskin's "Sesame and Lilies."*

The circle of the Strawbridge M. E. Church in Baltimore sends a copy of its program for October 29, the cover of which we reproduce. This circle displays much ingenuity in the arrangement of its exercises. One illustration of this is the way in which it makes an "oral report" appear under various guises. For instance, a "talk" discusses the story of Carthage, the dread Sahara is presented in a "word picture," the last great man of Africa becomes a "study," the exploits of Uruj Barbarossa a "tale" and Jean Jacques Rousseau is summed up in a "thumb-nail sketch." We fancy, however, that to a circle of such varied talents these different oral expressions are by no means the same in kind. Other circles may take a hint from this program, for a "tale," a "word picture" and a "study" offer possibilities of variety well worth trying. This circle is planning to hold an "End of the Century Watch Meeting," the program being


made up of the best things the nineteenth century has given us in art, science, literature, etc.

Many members are under the impression that if they return the memoranda for the year it is not necessary to fill out the form of application for the annual certificate, and so are disappointed when the certificate fails to arrive. Please note that the form of application is important in any case, as it is no light undertaking to distinguish between the vast array of memoranda of those who have filled out the form and those who have not. Copies of the blank will be furnished to any who have mislaid or have failed to receive it.

The Class of 1900, through the skill of one of its members, has secured photographs


PROGRAMME
of the
Second Meeting, October 29th, 1900.

C.
L.
S.
C.



A PALANQUIN OF THE DESERT

1900



1901

Department of Literary Work,
STRAWBRIDGE EPWORTH LEAGUE,
Park Ave. and Wilson St. **BALTIMORE, MD.**

of objects of interest and scenes at Chautauqua. The subjects available include: The Class of 1900; the Hall in the Grove showing decorations (exterior); interior of the Hall showing decorations; the Golden Gate; the Golden Gate and arches (taken from the Hall); Alumni Hall; banner of the Class of 1900. These can be furnished unmounted for fifty cents, and mounted for seventy-five

cents. The proceeds go toward the class fund for Alumni Hall. The size and price of pictures can be ascertained by writing to Miss Ella Ricker, 700 Carrollton avenue, Baltimore, Maryland.



"THE SPADE AND THE SWORD."

A remarkable illustration of the inspiring power of an ideal is to be found in the life of Dr. Heinrich Schliemann, the famous discoverer of ancient Troy. In his earliest childhood the story of the Trojan war made a deep impression upon him, and his youthful enthusiasm planned the discovery of the old city; but family misfortunes compelled him to leave school at the age of fourteen, and for five years he worked early and late, with no time for study. Later a position in Amsterdam brought him more freedom, and while doing errands his opportunities were eagerly improved. "I never went on my errands, even in the rain," he wrote, "without having my book in my hand and learning something by heart." He was a quick student, and in this way learned English in one half year and French in the next. His memory was phenomenal, and Dutch, Spanish, Italian and Portuguese he



DR. SCHLIEMANN'S HOUSE IN ATHENS.

learned in six weeks each. Unable to find a Russian teacher, he committed to memory a Russian translation of Fénelon's "Telemaque," and thus paved the way for his great commercial successes in that country. At the age of thirty-six his fortune was so large that he could abandon business and devote himself to archæology. He had for two years been studying Greek, which he had not dared attempt before lest he fall under the spell of Homer and neglect his business. The story of his discoveries is one of those archæological fairy tales which have brought the practical nineteenth cen-

tury curiously near to the age of myths and myth makers. Without Schliemann's enthusiastic devotion to his ideal, cherished in spite of poverty, prosperity and the ridicule of both the scholarly and the unscholarly public, some of the most fascinating chapters in the history of Greece might still be unwritten.



The following selection is taken from "Some Reminiscences of Schliemann," by J. Irving Manatt, published in the *Atlantic Monthly* for June, 1893:

"All visitors to Athens, especially all Americans, know the marble mansion on the street of the university, with its beautiful frescoes on the front and its sculptured gods and heroes guarding the battlements, with its garden full of oranges and climbing roses on either side and in the rear. Even in its exterior, it is a splendid palace, with its full front looking across the city upon the Acropolis. But enter once, and the charm of the house becomes commanding. The ground floor was a great museum, in some ways the most fascinating in the world, for it was full of rude, prehistoric things of Troy. Adjacent were the working rooms, where one found antiquity piled pell-mell, waiting for the work of classification. Hence a wide marble stairway led up to the second floor, with its grand ball-room, drawing-room, dining-room, music-room, etc., while another took the visitor to the top, which was Dr. Schliemann's own. Here was his magnificent library, with its long wide balcony; from this balcony he was fond of pointing out the profile of Gladstone, which nature has carved in the southeast face of the Sacred Rock. The library opened into the study, which was itself a very treasury of ancient art; while across the wide hall was the doctor's chamber, looking out upon the lovely garden in the rear. The whole house was beautiful, with its fine mosaic floors, its frescoed walls and ceilings, very transcripts of old mythology, and the gnomic sentences and Odyssey verses which from every possible panel gave out their own sweetness and light. It was a treat to wander about the house with him and listen to his genial and often whimsical reading of the 'writings on the wall.' . . . The name of the mansion, the Hall of Ilium, inscribed on its front, does not savor of excessive modesty; yet when I mentioned it to the doctor one day, he rendered it at once the 'Hut of Troy,' saying Homer used the word for the huts of the beleaguering Greeks. I think he was mistaken about this; but it is the word used of Priam's palace. And certainly the man whose magic spade dug up Priam's city had good right to borrow the Homeric name for his Athenian mansion.

"Bright and unique as was the mansion itself, it was the man in it, with his unique personality, that made it an event to enter there. More than any other man in new Greece, he had about him the old Greek flavor. German though he was by birth, American by adoption, cosmopolite by his far wandering life, he seemed a better Greek than any of the Greeks. Taking up the alphabet only after he had wrung a fortune out of fate by his own pluck and fortitude, and at the age of thirty-four, he had come to write and speak and think ancient Greek as a second mother tongue. The old authors, whom we spell out laboriously at college and then lay on the shelf forever, were his daily familiar society. How often have I found him in his library poring over Lucian as one of us might thumb his Thackeray! But it was Homer that he knew best. A few

weeks before leaving Athens for the last time, he came to call upon us. We were already entertaining a poor Ithacan, who, as a countryman of Odysseus and a special student of Homer, had Iliad and Odyssey at his tongue's end. The meeting of the two men was as the collision of two old rhapsodists, and the fire flew. Schliemann acknowledged my introduction of the Ithacan with a spontaneous burst of Homer; he was himself Odysseus 'all marred with the salt foam of the wine-dark deep' which had tossed him hapless on the Phæacian strand, and as such he made his plaint to fair-armed Nausicaa: 'I supplicate thee, O Queen, whether thou art some goddess or a mortal!' and so on to the end of that long and splendid speech. Then Nausicaa



DR. HEINRICH SCHLIMMANN.

of the white arms (by the mouth of our Ithacan) answered him and said: "Stranger, . . . since thou hast come to my city, and our land, thou shalt not lack raiment" and all the rest. Long the combat raged; fast flew the winged words and hot: for the men were on their mettle. Schliemann's mood was worthy of Odysseus himself, 'like a lion of the hills trusting in his strength, who fares out under wind and rain, and his eyes are all on fire.' Pitted against the Ithacan who knew nothing but Homer, the odds were yet with the old German who at the age of eight in his father's humble parsonage at Ankershagen, had conceived the object of his life, to dig up Troy, but had to wait nearly thirty years before he could learn the Greek alphabet."



HOW TO STUDY HOMER.

Few of us in this busy world are able to read many books, and often we do not give to these a second thought. But there are a few great books that it is worth our while to know well and we can afford to let other things drop into the background while we make their acquaintance. Homer easily

ranks as one of the greatest poets of the ages, yet how many of us are familiar with him? Perhaps we should have more men and women of heroic mold among us if we lived closer to the great world of the imagination. While we are studying Homer during the next few weeks, let us *study* him, live in his atmosphere as much as we may, commit to memory some of the great passages from his poems and feel the joy of a daily life that, while it is and ought to be devoted to practical ends, can still cherish something of "the glory and the freshness of a dream."

Those who have access to a little volume by Professor Jebb of Cambridge, entitled "Introduction to Homer," will find it full of helpful suggestions, and for the benefit of those who have not this book, we give below some hints for the study of Homer selected from it:

1. Make a condensed statement of the subject of each book in not more than fifty words.

2. Note how direct and simple are Homer's modes of expression. Contrast his "Valor of Diomedes" (page 41, "Homer to Theocritus") with Milton's description of the might of Satan's followers ("Paradise Lost," Bk. I., line 571).

3. Select passages from Homer descriptive of his various characters. Professor Jebb says: "Fresh, direct and noble, the Homeric mode of presenting life has been singularly potent in tracing certain types of character which have ever since stood out clearly before the imagination of the world. Such are Achilles, the type of heroic might, violent in anger and in sorrow, capable also of chivalrous and tender compassion; Odysseus, the type of resourceful intelligence joined to heroic endurance. Such again are the heroic types of women, so remarkable for true and fine insight,—Andromache, who in losing Hector must lose all; Penelope, loyal under hard trial to her absent lord."

4. He also calls attention to the divine types as (1) clearly marked, (2) not losing their divine quality, though possessing many human attributes, (3) the Homeric outlines both of divine and of human beings are brilliantly distinct, yet the reader can fill them in so as to satisfy his own ideal since they are not individualized beyond a certain point.

5. Note the descriptions of home life found in Homer.

6. The similes of Homer: (1) "They serve to introduce something which Homer desires to be exceptionally impressive." (2) The poet sometimes multiplies details in his simile, but not aimlessly, such details always serving to make the chief point clear. (3) The Iliad contains about one hundred and eighty detailed similes; the Odyssey barely forty. The latter has fewer moments of concentrated excitement than the former. (4) The range of the figures used: natural forces, the sea, animals, useful and ornamental arts, common experiences of everyday life, the life of children. Subjective imagery is rare. See the Iliad 22:199, a simile from a dream.

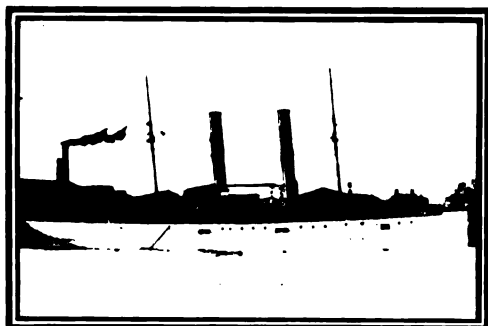
7. Religious ideas of Homer: By what means do the heroes seek the help of the gods or appease their wrath? The man appeals directly to the gods. "The priest as distinguished from the soothsayer appears only as the guardian of the sacred shrine." In the

Odyssey the gods have become more etherealized and spiritual than in the Iliad. What ethical ideas do we find in Homer? What was the Homeric method of treating the dead?



THE C. L. S. C. ON A MAN-OF-WAR.

A graduate of the Class of 1900, whose wanderings during the past few years would



U. S. GUNBOAT NASHVILLE.

do credit to Ulysses, has recently sent his final report from China. He began his course while teaching in a medical college in St. Louis, but reported the next year from the *Massachusetts* in the New York Navy-Yard, where he was serving as assistant surgeon. A year later his annual fee was sent from the *Celtic* stationed at Manila, and his fourth year's memoranda comes from the United States gunboat *Nashville* at Shanghai. Those of us whose lives run in quieter channels and who find it hard to accomplish what we undertake, can appreciate the quality of a fellow student who clings to a definite purpose amid the distractions both of foreign travel and of war. The diploma and seals for this graduate are now on their way to Shanghai, and as he has enrolled for a year of post-graduate work, taking the regular course for 1900-01, we doubt not he will study the "Rivalry of Nations" articles with peculiar interest and possibly in the near future make the "Reading Journey in the Orient" a real one.



A GREEK VIEW OF THE ODYSSEY.

Some of the most interesting facts about Greek life and mythology come to us from the many painted terra cotta vases which have survived the changing centuries when more perishable records have disappeared. While we are studying Homer, this glimpse of a vase painting, possibly of the time of Pericles, will be of special interest. The scene represents Odysseus bound to the mast

of his galley that he may escape the wiles of the sirens. The picture is not without its humorous side to us, though it was doubtless worked out with all seriousness by the artist. The close connection of Greece with Egypt is suggested by the form of the sirens, which is almost identical with the Egyptian "Ba," the bird form which is assumed by the soul of the dead. The Greeks, however, transformed it into a creature of ill omen, and it is found doing duty both for harpies and for sirens. It would be interesting to know just how a Greek of Pericles's day regarded this bit of decorative art. Did the "Homeric question" puzzle him as it puzzles us?



THINGS WE ARE SUPPOSED TO KNOW.

Candidates for public library positions are always asked certain questions entitled "general information," which, it is assumed, a fairly intelligent person should be able to answer. Some of us may enjoy testing our own "intelligence" in this way. Here are some of the questions:

Characterize briefly, giving country, century, and for what noted, ten of the following: Galileo, James Anthony Froude, Phillips Brooks, Robespierre, F. Hopkinson Smith, John Hay, Albrecht Dürer, Père Marquette, Marco Bozzaris, Demosthenes, John Knox, Leonardo da Vinci.

Name one English and two American weeklies treating of public questions; one English and one American critical review; a prominent journal devoted to art; sport; religion; science; household affairs.

Name two men who have been secretary of state; two who have been governor of your own state; two who have been speaker of the House of Representatives.

Tell briefly (about two or three lines) what is



A GREEK VIEW OF ODYSSEUS.

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suggested by the following: French Academy, Cripple Creek, Taj Mahal, Brook Farm, Ides of March, University Extension, Lion of Lucerne, Chevy Chase, Society for Psychological Research, Reign of Law.

Who discovered: Circulation of the blood? That the earth moves round the sun? Law of gravitation? Motive power of steam? Principle of the lever?

THE DICTIONARY HABIT.

Good habits, like bad ones, can become second nature if we keep them up long enough. One of the most useful habits for the self-educating reader is that of consulting the dictionary. Don't let an unfamiliar word slip past you in your reading without looking it up or noting it down to be investigated as soon as you can reach a dictionary. Reading the dictionary is a much more stimulating occupation than many of us suppose, for so many of our pet notions may be either confirmed or overthrown that what we read arouses our interest, makes an impression and enriches our ideas. How many of us are familiar with the following words in current use; yet see what an interesting pedigree some of them have:

Sir-dar'. This word comes from the Hindu, and in India and oriental countries means a person in command,—a leader. In Egypt it is specifically applied to the commander-in-chief of the army, at present a British officer.

Sin'-o-logue has recently come into prominence by reason of the Chinese complications. For this word we are indebted to the Greeks, *Sinat*, Chinese, and *lego*, speak. A Sinologue is therefore one who is versed in Sinology, the systematic study or investigation of the Chinese language, literature, history and characteristics.

Fir'-man. A word of Persian origin (*farman*, a mandate). A special decree of a Turkish or other oriental sovereign, giving authority to travel, sanctioning an enterprise or undertaking. We shall meet this word frequently in our "Reading Journey in the Orient."

Shib'-bo-leth. A test word or pet phrase of a party; a watchword. From the Hebrew word *shibboleth* given by Jephthah (Judges, xii., 4-6) as a test to distinguish his own men from the Ephraimites, who were betrayed by the pronunciation *shibboleth*.

Un'-cial, from *uncia*, a Roman word meaning the twelfth part of anything, as of a pound (an ounce), a foot (an inch). Uncial letters are found in manuscripts from the fourth to the eighth century. They are large and of nearly uniform size, resembling modern capitals, but with greater roundness, inclination and inequality in height. The term uncial as thus used arose from a misapplication of St. Jerome's expression *litteræ unciales* by which he simply meant "inch high," or large, handsome letters.

GAMES.

Circles and readers will do well to provide themselves with some of the excellent games of historical characters, events, etc., and use them occasionally for review purposes. The games of cities, foreign characters and of the world, published by L. J. Colby & Co., costing seventy-five cents to one dollar, give effective sidelights on the "Rivalry of Nations" studies. "Some Sevens in Greece," published by Mrs. H. S. Russell, includes a very comprehensive list of Greek

characters. This and the "Game of Greek Mythology," by R. H. Howe, are each fifty cents. Any of these can be secured through the Chautauqua Office at Cleveland.

It was a happy idea of the president of the Roger Williams Circle of Providence, Rhode Island, Mrs. Hemenway, to present each member with a package of seeds of the cornflower. Many of the circle are members of the Class of 1903, and as the cornflower is the class emblem she suggested that as the plants grew each one might be reminded of Chautauqua's widespread influence which has resulted in the fuller development of so many lives.

"To the growth of every flower earth, sun and atmosphere must contribute; in the making of a man all the rich forces of nature and civilization must have place."—H. W. Mabie.

A graduate of '91 from Harrisburg, Pennsylvania, writes: "The 'recognized reading' is delightful, only I cannot do nearly all that I would like. The course is so fine and such a pleasure, while the benefit is beyond expression."

A solitary reader in Vermont belonging to the class of 1900, in sending a contribution of pine cones for the class room at Chautauqua, had them tipped with gold, for she said, "They are to represent the days of sunshine that Chautauqua has brought into my life."

A member of 1903 asks for the addresses of other members who would be interested to write occasionally, as she also is a lone reader. Correspondence of this sort between Chautauquans has been carried on very effectively in the past, and we shall take pleasure in introducing classmates to each other if any who have time for such correspondence will send their names to the editor of the Round Table.

The Class of 1904 is making a fine record. Its membership extends into every state and territory of the union, and foreign lands also contribute their share. Many new circles have been formed and the class is already running well ahead of 1903!

The new circular announcing plans for graduates was mailed in November to ten thousand of our graduates. The courses offered are very attractive and any graduates who have failed to receive the circular can secure it by writing to the Chautauqua offices. The preliminary announcement published in the advertising pages of the November CHAUTAUQUAN was incorrect in some particulars. Graduates will find the courses, as finally arranged, given in the December number of the magazine and in the circular sent them.

OUTLINE OF READING AND PROGRAMS.

C. L. S. C. MOTTOES.

*"We Study the Word and the Works of God."**"Let us Keep our Heavenly Father in the Midst."**"Never be Discouraged."*

C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS.

OPENING DAY—October 1.

BRYANT DAY—November, second Sunday.

MILTON DAY—December 9.

COLLEGE DAY—January, last Thursday.

LANIER DAY—February 3.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.

LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.

SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.

ADDISON DAY—May 1.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.

INAUGURATION DAY—August, first Sunday after first Tuesday.

ST. PAUL'S DAY—August, second Saturday after first Tuesday.

RECOGNITION DAY—August, third Wednesday.



OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING.

JANUARY 1-8—

In *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*: The Rivalry of Nations. Chap. 12. The Balkan Peninsula since 1878.

Required Books: Grecian History. Chap. 1. The Greek Lands. Homer to Theocritus. Chap. 1. Introductory.

JANUARY 8-15—

In *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*: The Rivalry of Nations. Chap. 13. Critical Studies in French Literature: French Lyric Poets.

Required Books: Grecian History. Chaps. 2 and 3. Homer to Theocritus. Chap. 2 to page 26.

JANUARY 15-22—

In *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*: The Rivalry of Nations. Chap. 14.

Required Book: Homer to Theocritus. Chap. 2 concluded. Chap. 3.

JANUARY 22-29—

In *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*: The Rivalry of Nations. Chap. 15. A Reading Journey in the Orient. Palestine.

Required Book: Homer to Theocritus. Chap. 4.

JANUARY 29-FEBRUARY 5—

In *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*: The Rivalry of Nations.

Chap. 16. The Inner Life of Corot.

Required Book: Grecian History. Chaps. 4 and 5.



SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLES.

JANUARY 1-8—

1. Roll-call: Answered by describing the personal appearance of the various sovereigns of Europe.
2. Papers: Gortschakoff; Stambuloff; Carmen Sylva. (See magazine articles; also paragraph on biographical study in December Round Table.)
3. Reading: Selection from the "Emperor of Austria," by Irenæus Prime-Stevenson, in *The Outlook* for November 3, 1900. Or from "The Two Pompadours." (See this magazine, p. 381.)
4. Papers: The modern Greek as compared with his classic ancestor. (See *Review of Reviews*, January, 1897; *Harper's Weekly*, May 15, 1897.) The part assigned to Greek in a modern college education. (*Review of Reviews*, January, 1897.) Some things we owe to Greece. (See *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*, September, 1900.)
5. Drill on the Greek alphabet. (See suggestions at head of December programs.)
6. Discussion: Greek words in the English language. (See "A Pinch of Attic Salt," in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* for this month.) The different words there mentioned should be apportioned among the members of the circle, each finding as much as possible about the history and use of the word assigned.

JANUARY 8-15—

1. Paper: The forms of French literature thus far studied, with brief accounts of the historical period to which each belongs.
2. Roll-call: Selections from the French lyric poets. (See Critical Studies.)

3. Character Studies: Ismail Pasha. Ferdinand de Lesseps. (See encyclopedias and Poole's Index for magazine articles.)
4. Reading: The present khedive. ("Present-Day Egypt," Penfield. Or *Munsey's Magazine*, March, 1898.)
5. Debate: Resolved, That Egypt should be released from British control. (See "What Britain has done for Egypt," *North American Review*, July, 1898. "Rivalry of Nations," Chapter 13. "England's Absorption of Egypt," Penfield. *North American Review*, December, 1897. Or "Present-Day Egypt," by the same author.)
6. Map Review: Each Greek state should be assigned to some one member, who may take the rest of the circle on a brief imaginary trip, pointing out the location of cities, mountains, oracles, etc.
7. Greek myths, their meaning and their use by the great poets: Three papers on Prometheus, Athena, Apollo. (See Gayley's "Classic Myths," Bulfinch's "Age of Fable," etc. Also Ruskin's "Queen of the Air.")
8. Readings: Each reading should be given directly after the paper to which it relates. "Prometheus, or the Poet's Forethought." Longfellow. Athena described by Homer, Bk. V., line 730, etc. Keats's "Hymn to Apollo."

JANUARY 15-22—

1. Summary: By a selected leader of chief points in "Rivalry of Nations," Chapter 14.
2. Paper: Schliemann and his work at Troy. (See biography in Schuchhardt's "Schliemann.")

"Schliemann, the Excavator of Ancient Troy." T. D. Seymour. *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* for June, 1891. "Recollections of Schliemann." C. K. Tuckerman. *New England Magazine*, April, 1891.)

3. Reading: Reminiscences of Schliemann. (See Round Table.)
4. Reading: Keats's Sonnet "On Looking Into Chapman's Homer."
5. Roll-call: Descriptions of Homeric characters. These should be previously assigned. Several quotations illustrating different traits of the same character should be given. If these can be given from memory, it will add much to the effect.
6. Reading: The Isles of Greece. Byron.
7. Study of the Iliad: (See "How to Study Homer," in Round Table.)

JANUARY 22-29—

1. Selections from Kipling relating to England's imperial position and responsibilities. (See "The Seven Seas.")
2. Character Studies: Charles G. Gordon. (See Life by Butler in "English Men of Action," Series. Description of his funeral in "With Kitchener to Khartoum.") Lord Kitchener. (See *Munsey's Magazine*, March, 1898. *Review of Reviews*, October, 1898. *The Outlook*, February 4, 1899. "With Kitchener to Khartoum," G. W. Stevens.)
3. Discussion: The fate of Gordon. (Many articles will be found in English magazines. See Poole's Index, 1887-1896.)
4. Reading: Tennyson's "Ulysses."
5. Study of the Odyssey. (See "How to Study Homer," in Round Table.)
6. Reading: Selection from "Simplicity," by C. D. Warner. A study of Nausicaa. (*Atlantic Monthly*, March, 1889.) This reading might be given immediately after the character studies in the Odyssey.

JANUARY 29-FEBRUARY 5—

1. Roll-call: Answered by quotations from the Iliad, and Odyssey.
2. Papers: The Indian Mutiny. (See "The Land of the Veda," Butler.) The Diamond Jubilee of Queen Victoria. (See all magazines for June and July, 1897.)
3. Singing: "The Recessional," Kipling.
4. Reading: "The Shrinking Earth." (See December CHAUTAUQUAN.)
5. Greek Myths: Their meaning and their use by the poets. Two papers on Orpheus; Demeter and Persephone. (See Bulfinch's "Age of Fable," and Gayley's "Classic Myths in English Literature." Also Hawthorne's "Tanglewood Tales" and "Wonder Book.")
6. Readings: Each should be given after the paper to which it relates. "Demeter and Persephone," Tennyson. "Orpheus and Eurydice," Browning.
7. Papers: The Old Olympic Festival. (See "New Chapters in Greek History," Gardner. Excursions in Greece," Diehl. *Century Magazine*, April, 1896. Also the larger Greek histories. See bibliography in Joy's book.) The New Olympic Games. (See *Century Magazine*, November, 1896. *Outlook*, May 30, 1896. *Scribner's Magazine*, September, 1896.)
8. Reading: Selections from "My Sixty Days in Greece," E. L. Gildersleeve. *Atlantic Monthly*, February, 1897.



THE TRAVEL CLUB.

Readers who have access to volumes of *The Biblical World* will find them full of most valuable help on all points brought out in the following programs. In addition to the bibliography given with the article on Palestine, readers will do well to consult such works of travel and exploration as may be available. Thomson's "The Land and the Book" will be found in many private libraries. "The City and the Land," Tristram (Macmillan Co., 1892), is a small volume giving reports of the Palestine Exploration Fund. "Haifa, or Life in Modern Palestine," by Lawrence Oliphant (Harper & Brothers, 1887), is a very readable book and gives accounts of many of the important discoveries. The same is true of "A World Pilgrimage," by J. H. Barrows (McClurg & Co.). "In Scripture Lands," by E. L. Wilson (Scribner's), is a reprint of articles published in *The Century Magazine* in 1888-90, and in addition to the interest of the articles, the illustrations will be found especially valuable. A concordance or the text-book in the ordinary teacher's Bible is, of course, almost indispensable, and Smith's "Dictionary of the Bible" will give much help if the student cannot secure Baedeker.

First Week—

1. Roll-call: Answered by biblical quotations concerning Jerusalem, with statement of circumstances which called them forth.
2. Papers: The Palestine Exploration Fund. (See "The City and the Land;" "Haifa, or Life in Modern Palestine;" also "Recent Changes in the Holy Land," *The Independent*, August 30, 1900, and "Recent Work of Exploration Fund," *Scientific American*, May 5, 1900, page 278.)
3. Papers: Jerusalem in History; The People of Jerusalem. (See Baedeker.)
4. Reading: Selection from "Ben-Hur," Wallace; or from "On the Desert," Field. Chaps. 19 or 21-24.
5. Book Review: Tasso's "Jerusalem Delivered," with selections from the poem.
6. Papers: Mount Moriah; The Church of the Holy Sepulcher; Walks within the city. (See Baedeker. Also "Round About Jerusalem," by E. L. Wilson, *Century Magazine*, May, 1889, and "Three Jewish Kings," October, 1889.) The Suburbs of Jerusalem: Mount of Olives, Valley of Kidron, Valley of Hinnom. (See Baedeker.)

Second Week—

1. Roll-call: Answered by biblical quotations about Bethlehem, Hebron, Bethany or Jericho, with statement of circumstances which called them forth.
2. Papers: Bethlehem; Bethany; The Dead Sea. (See Baedeker; also "Bethlehem" in *McClure's Magazine* for December, 1896. Wilson's "Sinai to Shechem" in *Century Magazine*, December, 1888; "Three Jewish Kings," October, 1889.)
3. Readings: "Hymn on the Nativity," Milton; selections from "An Epistle," Browning. (See also "Poems of Places," edited by Longfellow.)
4. Book Review: "Come Forth," by E. S. Phelps and H. D. Ward.
5. Papers: Hebron; Jericho; The Jordan. (See Baedeker, Wilson's "Sinai to Shechem," *Century Magazine*, December, 1888, and all available helps.)
6. Readings: Selections from "In Palestine," R. W. Gilder. "A Visit to the Cave of Machpelah," *Independent*, January 9, 1896, or Browning's "Saul."

Third Week —

1. Roll-call: Answered by biblical quotations referring to Shechem, Samaria, Jezreel, Carmel, Mt. Tabor, Nazareth and other places in Galilee, with explanation.
2. Papers: Art in Syria; The Rock Tombs of Petra; Shechem; Samaria. (See Baedeker and bibliography, also Wilson's "Some Wayside Places in Palestine," *Century Magazine*, March, 1890.)
3. Reading: Selections from Lessing's "Nathan the Wise," The parable of the three kings. (See THE CHAUTAUQUAN, December, 1883, or copy of Lessing's poems); or "Petra" in Longfellow's "Poems of Places."
4. Book Review: "The Wandering Jew." Eugene Sue.
5. Papers: Mt. Tabor; Nazareth; Through Galilee. (See Baedeker and bibliography; also Wilson's "Round About Galilee," *Century Magazine*, January, 1889.)

6. Reading: Selections from "Judith and Holofernes," by Thomas Bailey Aldrich.

Fourth Week —

1. Roll-call: Descriptions of the wild animals of Palestine, with Scripture quotations referring to them. (See Baedeker.)
2. Papers: Damascus in History; Its Shops and Industries; The Great Mosque. (See "Damascus, the Oldest City in the World," *Biblical World*, August, 1898.)
3. Reading: Selection from Longfellow's "Poems of Places."
4. Papers: Baalbek; The Turk in Palestine. (See Baedeker.)
5. Reading: "Baalbec" in "Poems of Places."
6. Paper: The Syrian Protestant College. (See missionary publications.)



REVIEW QUESTIONS ON "GRECIAN HISTORY."

CHAPTER I. THE GREEK LANDS.

1. What nations in the eastern Mediterranean exerted an early influence on Greece? 2. How large was ancient Greece? 3. What are the chief mountains of Greece and for what famous? 4. How did the sea influence the Greeks in a commercial and political way? 5. Describe the climate of the country? 6. What were the chief natural products? 7. How did the complex surroundings of the Greeks affect their character?

CHAPTER II. PREHISTORIC GREECE.

1. What race inhabited Greece before the Hellenes? 2. What massive ruins puzzled the old Greeks as well as modern students? 3. What discoveries were made by Dr. Schliemann? 4. How was the influence of Egypt and Phœnicia felt in Greece? 5. How were myth and fact combined in the story of the origin of Thebes? 6. What possible connection had Argos with Egypt?

CHAPTER III. LEGEND AND TRADITION.

1. What was the legend of the Argonauts? 2. What legend is associated with the founding of Athens? 3. What legends find their home in Thessaly? 4. What in Laconia? 5. What is the legend of Heracles?

6. What in brief is the story of the Trojan war? 7. What state of society is shown in the Homeric poems?

CHAPTER IV. THE MAKING OF HELLAS.

1. In what part of Greece did the invading Ætolians settle? 2. What part of the country did the Dorians invade? 3. What was meant by the return of the Heraclids, and what was the probable truth of the legend? 4. How were the Greek settlements on the coast of Asia Minor brought about? 5. What other settlements were made during this period?

CHAPTER V. THE HELLENES.

1. What was it to be a Hellenes? 2. How was the language of the Greeks peculiarly adapted to their civilization? 3. How did the Greek ideas of the gods compare with those of oriental nations? 4. What religious centers were established in Greece, and in honor of what gods? 5. Describe the shrine of Apollo at Delphi. 6. Describe some of the leading divinities and their characteristics. 7. What famous athletic festivals attained national importance? 8. Describe the Olympian games. 9. What three ruling traits were characteristic of the Greek? 10. How did the originality of the Greek show itself? 11. What has the Greek love of beauty given to the world?



REVIEW QUESTIONS ON "HOMER TO THEOCRITUS."

CHAPTER I. INTRODUCTORY.

1. Why does the literature of Greece form an ideal introduction to the study of literature in general? 2. Why are Greek dialogues and orations original types, while those of Rome are not? 3. What do we mean by the statement that the forms of literature which they invented were universal? 4. What different forms of literature did they work out at different periods of their history? 5. Where were the Æolians settled, and what branches of this tribe became famous in literature? 6. What form of poetry was first brought to perfection by the Spartans? 7. How did the Athenians enrich their own dialect from other sources? 8. Why is the literature of Greece more complex for the student than that of Rome? 9. How was the literature of Greece brought before the public?

CHAPTER II. EPIC POETRY. INTRODUCTION TO THE ILIAD.

1. How does the Iliad prove that the Greeks had

some form of poetry before Homer? 2. What forms did this early poetry take? 3. How are the minstrels described in Homer? 4. Of what subjects did they sing? 5. Is it probable that these minstrels were also poets? Why? 6. What is probably true of the poets of the Iliad and Odyssey? 7. What is the meaning of epic? 8. How does an epic poem differ from a chronicle? 9. Why is the Iliad a natural epic rather than a literary epic? 10. With what portion of the Trojan war does the Iliad deal? 11. How did the Greeks know the earlier history of the war? 12. What was that earlier history? 13. Tell the story of the prologue to the Iliad.

CHAPTERS III. AND IV. THE ILIAD AND THE ODYSSEY.

(See suggestions for study in first part of Round Table.)

PRONOUNCING VOCABULARY OF GREEK PROPER NAMES.

Ac-a-dē'mia	Cal'i-as	E-ges'ta (jes)	Lab'da-lum	Pag'a-sae
A-can'thus	Cal-li-crat'i-das	E-i'ra	La-ce-dae'mon	Pal-lē'ne
Ac-ar-nā'ni-a	Cal-lim'a-chus(kus)	E-la-te'a	Lach'e-sis	Pal'las A-thē'nē
Ach'e-ron (ak)	Cal-li'o-pē	El-eu'sis	La'de	Pam-bo'tis
A-chae'an (kē)	Cal-lir'rho-e	El-eu-sin'ia	Lam'a-chus (kus)	Pa-mi'sus
Ach-el-ō'us (ak)	Cam-by'sēs	El-eu-the'ri-a	Lā'res	Pan-ath-e-nae'a
A-chil'lēs (kil)	Cap-o-dis'tri-as	Ep-am-i-non'das	Leb-a-de'a	Pan-i-o'ni-um
Ac-ro-co-rin'thus	Car'pa-thus	E-phi-al'tes	Le-on'i-das	Pā'ros
Ac-rop'o-lis	Ce-cro'pi-a	Eph'ors	Le-on-ti'a-des	Par-then'i-ae
Ad-i-man'tus	Ceph-al-lē'ni-a	Ep ic-ne-mid'i-an	Le-o-tych'i-des (tik)	Pa-tro'clus
Æ-gē'an (jē)	Ce-phis'sus	Epi-men'i-dēs	Leuc'tra	Pau-sā'ni-as
Æ-gi'na (ji)	Cer'be-rus	Ep-i-dau'rus	Ly-cur'gus	Pat'a-ra
Æ-ō-lis	Chaer-o-nē'a	E-pip'o-lae	Ly-san'der	Pel-as'gi (ji)
Æschi-nēs (ki)	Chal'ce-don (kal)	E-pi'rus	Mac'e-don (mas)	Pē'li-on
Æschy-lus	Chal-cid'i-ce	Er'a-to	Mā'lic	Pe-lop'i-das
Æ-tō'li-a	Chal'cis	Er'e-bus	Mā'lis	Pē'lops
Ag-a-mem'non	Cha'res (ka)	Er-ech-the'um (rek)	Mā'nes	Pen-ā'tes
Ag-a-ris'te	Char-i-de'us	E-rē'tri-a	Man-ti-ne'a	Pe-nēs'tae
A-ges-i-lā'us	Cher-so-nē'sus	Er-in'yes	Mar-dō'ni-us	Pe-nē'us
A'gis (jis)	Chi'os (ki)	E'ros	Mar-don'tes	Pen-tel'i-cus
A-gia'i-a	Cir-me'ra	Er-y-man'thus	Mas-sil'i-a	Per-dic'cas
Ag'o-ra	Cho-rē'gus	E-tē'sian	Me-dē'a	Per-i-an'der
Al-ci-bi'a-des	Cir'rha	Eu-aen'e-tus	Meg-a-by'zus	Per'i-clēs
Alc-mae-on'idae	Cith-ae'ron	Eu-boe'a	Meg-a-cles	Per-in'thus
A-lec'to	Cle-ar'chus	Eu-pat'ri-dae	Meg-a-lop'o-lis	Per-i-ō'ci (se)
A-leu'a-dae	Cle-om'bro-tus	Eu-phros'y-ne	Meg'a-ris	Per-seph'o-nē
Am-brā'ci-a	Cle-om'e-nēs	Eu-rip'i-dēs	Me-gae'ra (je)	Per-sep'o-lis
A-mor'gus	Cle'on	Eu-ri'pus	Mel'carth	Per'seus (suse)
Am-phic'ty-on-y	Cle-ru'chi-es (kē)	Eu-ry-bi'a-dēs	Mē'los	Pha-lae'cus
Am-phil'o-lis	Clī'o	Eu-rym'e-don	Mel-pom'e-ne	Pha-lē'rum
Am-phiss'a	Clis'the-nēs	Eu-ter'pe	Men-e-la'us	Phar-na-ba'zus
Am-yn'tas	Clō'tho	Eu-rys'theus	Mes-sē'ne	Phi-dip'pi-dēs
A-nab'a-sis	Cni'dus (nī)	Eux-i'nus	Met'is	Phli'us
A-nac're-on	Co-cy'tus	Gae'a (je)	Mil-ti'a-des	Phi-lo-me'la
An-ā'pus	Cō'drus	Gan-y-mē'des	Mi'nos	Pho-cae'a
An-ag-o'ras	Cō'non	Ge-om'o-ri (je)	Min'o-taur	Pho'ci-on
An-o-pae'a	Co-pā'is	Ger-u'si-a (je)	Min'y-ae	Phoeb'i-das
An-tal'ci-das	Cor-cy'ra	Grae'ae	Mit-y-lē'ne	Phor'mi-o
An-ti'o-chus	Cor-o-ne'a	Gra-ni'cus	Mne-mos'y-ne	Phryn'i-chus
An'ti-phon	Cor-y-phā'si-on	Gy-lip'pus (ji)	Mo'e'rae	Phy'le
A-ō'us	Cri'ti-as (she)	Ha-li-ar'tus	Mu-nych'i-a	Pin'dus
Aph-ro-dī'te	Cro'e'us	Har-mo'di-us	Myc'a-le	Pi-rae'us
A-rach'thus	Cryp-tē'a	Har'pa-gus	My-ce'nae	Pi-san'der
Ar-chi-da'mus (kē)	Cū'mae	He'be	My-ron'i-des	Pi-sa'tis
A-re-op'a-gus	Cu-nax'a	Hec'a-te	Nā'iad	Pi-sis'tra-tus
A'rēs	Cyc'la-dēs (sic)	He-li-ae'a	Nau-cra'tis	Pla-tae'a
Ar-gi-nū'sae (gi)	Cy'lon	Hel'les-pont	Nau-pac'tus	Plem-myr'i-um
Ar-go-lis	Cyp'sel-us	He-phaes'tus	Na-va-ri'no (ree)	Plis-to'a-nax
Ar-is-tag'or-as	Cy-rē'ne	Her'a-clēs	Nem'e-sis	Pnyx (nix)
Ar-is-ti'des	Cyth-ē're-a	Her-a-clī'dae	Nē're-ids	Pol-y-hym'ni-a
Ar-is-to-dē'mus	Cyz'i-cus	Her'mae	Ni-cer'a-tus	Po-sei'don
Ar-is-to-gi'ton (ji)	Dan'a-i	Her'mes	Nic'i-as	Po-ti-dae'a
Ar-is-tom'e-nes	Dan'a-us	Her-mi'o-ne	Nic-o-mē'des	Prom'a-chos
Ar-is-toph'a-nēs	Daph'ne	He-rod'o-tus	Ni'ke	Prom'pon'tis
Ar-nae'ans	Da-ri'us	Hes-per'i-dēs	Ni-sae'a	Prop-y-lae'a
Ar-ta-bā'zus	Dec-ar-chies (kēes)	Hi-ma'la-yas (ah)	Nō'tus	Psam-met'i-chus
Ar-ta-pher'nes	Dec'e-lē'a (des)	Hip-par'chus	O'bae	Py'lus
Ar-te-mis	Dē'los	Hip-pol'y-te	O-dae'um	Py-thag'o-ras
Ar-te-mis'i-um	Del'phi	His-sar'lik	Od'ys-sey	Rhe'gi-um
As-tar'te (tee)	Dem-a-rā'tus	His-ti-ae'us (te)	CE'di-pus	Sal'a-mis
Ath'os	Dē'mes	Hy-dar'nes	CE-noph'y-ta	Sam-o-thrā'ce
At-ro-pos	De-me'ter	Hy-met'tus	O-lym pi-ad	Sā'-mos
An'ge-as (jē)	Dem'i-urgi (ji)	Hy-per'bo-lus	Om'pha-le	Sa-ro'nic
Bac-chi'a-dae (ki)	De-mos'then-es	I-ap'et-us	On-o-mar'chus	Sāt'yrs
Bac'chus	Di-o-nys'i-us	I-be'ri-an	O-pun'ti-an	Sca-man'der
Bel-ler'o-phon	Di-o-ny'sus (ni)	Ic-ti'nus	Or-chom'e-nus	Scop'a-dae
Boe-ō'ti-a	Di-o-pi'thes	Il-lyr'i-a	O'rē-ad	Scy'ros (si)
Bō're-as	Di-os-cū'ri	Im'bros	Or-thag'o-ras	Scyth'i-a (sith)
Bōs'po-rus	Do-de-cap'o-lis	I-on'ic	Os'sa	Sel-ē'ne
Bras'i-das	Dō'ris	I-sag'o-rus	O'tho	Se-li'us
By-zan'ti-um	Drā'co	I-soc'ra-tes	O'thrys	Ses'tos
Cad-me'a	Ec-cle'sia	I-tho'me	Ox'y-lus	Sic'y-on

Si-mon'i-des	Sys-sit'i-a	The-mis'to-cles	Thráce	Tri'er-arch
Sis'y-phus	Tan'a-gra	The-og'e-nes (ój)	Thra-syl'us	Tri-phyl'ia
Soph'o-cles	Ta-ren'tum	The-or'i-con	Thras-y-bu'lus	Troe'zen
Sphac-te'ri-a	Ta-yg'e-tus (ij)	The'ra	Thu-cyd'i-des	Tym-phres'tus
Spho'dri-as	Te-ge'a	Ther-mop'y-lae	Thu'r'i-i	Tyr-tae'us
Spor'a-des	Tem'pe	The'se-us (suse)	Ti-grá'nes	U-rá-ni-a
Stra-te'gi	Terp-sich'o-rē	Thes'sa-ly	Ti-mo'the-us	U'ra-nus
Strat'o-clēs	Tha'les	Thes'pians	Ti'r'yns	Xan-thip'pus (tip)
Stry-mon	Tha-li'a	Thes'pis	Tis-sa-pher'nes	Za-cyn'thus (sin)
Su'sa	Than'a-tos	Thes-pro'ti-ans	Ti-siph'o-ne	Zan'cle
Syb'a-ris	Tha'sos	Thi'bron	Tith'raus	Zeph'y-rus
Syb'o-ta	Thēbes	Thoth'mes (tot)	Tol'mi-des	Zeus (zuse)



ANSWERS TO SEARCH QUESTIONS.

"THE RIVALRY OF NATIONS."

DECEMBER.

1. The estrangement between the Greek and Latin churches stands in close connection with the division of the Roman empire, the increasing rivalry between the see of Old Rome and that of Constantinople, the insertion by the Latin church of the *Filioque* ("and from the Son," meaning the proceeding of the Holy Ghost from the Son as well as from the Father) in the Nicene Creed, the question of the ecclesiastical allegiance of the Bulgarians and of papal supremacy. There had been temporary suspensions of communion previous to the ninth century, when the Great Schism occurred. The principal doctrinal difficulty related to the *Filioque*. The final division came in 1054, the Roman Christians regarding the Greeks as cut off from the Catholic Church, while the former claim that they have remained faithful to the Catholic creed and ancient usages. 2. The following are the most important teachings of the Greek Church differing from the Roman Church: The Holy Ghost proceeds from the Father only. Man when created possessed immortality, perfect wisdom, and a will regulated by wisdom. Through sin Adam and his posterity lost immortality, and his will received a bias towards evil. All Christians should receive the bread and the wine. The Church of Christ is the fellowship of all those who accept and profess all the articles of faith transmitted by the apostles and approved by general synods. Priests and deacons must not contract a second marriage. To all priests belongs the administration of the six sacraments,—baptism, confirmation, penance, eucharist, matrimony, unction of the sick. 3. Through Michael VIII., who with the help of the Genoese captured Constantinople, July 25, 1261, and put an end to the Latin dynasty. 4. The French form of a Turkish word meaning "high gate" (justice being dispensed at the palace gate). It signifies the Ottoman empire, the cabinet representing it, or in diplomatic or political use, the country itself. 5. Montenegro, Cetigne, Serbia, Belgrade. Roumania, Bukharest. Bulgaria, Sofia. 6. Carmen Sylva is the pseudonym of Queen Elizabeth of Roumania. 7. "Songs of Toil," "Peasant Life in Roumania." 8. Otto of Bavaria was elected King of Greece in 1832, and the Greeks adopted blue and white, the colors of Bavaria, as a delicate compliment to the prince who had accepted their invitation to ascend the throne of Greece. 9. Disraeli, Benjamin. (1804–1881) (Earl of Beaconsfield). An English statesman and novelist. Became chancellor of the exchequer in 1852, holding office one year; in 1866 was named for the same office. In 1868 became prime minister, but soon resigned; returned to power in 1874. Was made a peer in 1877. Held many honorary offices and titles. 10. A celebrated defile in the Danube at the confines of Hungary, Serbia and Roumania. At this

point is a broad plateau of rock fourteen hundred yards wide, over which the Danube formerly rushed with an overpowering noise, this rapid being followed by eddies and whirlpools. In 1849 part of the rock was removed by blasting so that vessels of eight feet draught can pass it at certain seasons of the year, though most of them draw but four feet.

"A READING JOURNEY IN THE ORIENT."

DECEMBER.

1. Jeremiah, 46:19. O thou daughter dwelling in Egypt, furnish thyself to go into captivity: for Noph shall be waste and desolate without an inhabitant. 2. A corps of cavalry formerly existing in Egypt, whose chiefs were long the sovereign rulers of that country. They originated with a body of Mingrelians, Turks and other slaves, who were sold by Genghis Khan to the Egyptian sultan in the thirteenth century. About 1251 they established their government in Egypt by making one of their number sultan. Their government was overthrown by Selim I. of Turkey, in 1517, but they formed part of the Egyptian army until 1811, when Mehemet Ali destroyed most of them by a general massacre. 3. The son of the seventh king of the fifth dynasty, Assa or Tet-ka-ra. He began to reign about 3366 B. C., and when he was one hundred and ten years old, determined to set down all the proverbs of his day in rhythmic order, and metrical arrangement. The existing papyrus containing them is the oldest book in the world, but this is, however, merely a copy of a much older treatise. 4. An epic poem written by Penta-ur, a court poet of the time of Rameses II., whose deeds of prowess in single combat against the Hittites it celebrates. The text of the poem was inscribed on the walls of the temples of Abydos, Luxor, Karnak, the Ramesseum and Ipsambul. Cut in the temple walls and accompanying the poem are enormous illustrations depicting the battle. 5. Thothmes III., the greatest of Egyptian conquerors, so called because of his victories in Western Asia. 6. An emblem of the god Horus, son of Osiris and Isis. In the form of a winged disk of the sun he fought against Typhon (the emblem of death,) the murderer of his father, being aided by two serpents entwined on the disk. He represents regeneration, resurrection, the ultimate triumph of good over evil and of life over death. 7. Jean François Champollion. 8. An Egyptian officer and revolutionary leader, born about 1837. He organized the national party of Egypt in opposition to Anglo-French control: took part in the deposition of the ministry in 1881 and became minister of war in 1882. He withdrew the budgets from the English and French controllers, an act which resulted in the bombardment of Alexandria by the English, July 11, and in the defeat of Arabi Pasha at Tel-el-Kebir, September 13, 1882. He was taken a prisoner at Cairo and exiled to Ceylon.

TOPICS of the HOUR with CURRENT EVENTS PROGRAMS

[Note.—In the daily deluge of books and articles the average reader is hopelessly overwhelmed. Complete lists of references to current magazines and recent volumes are of value only to specialists. The busy person who wishes to be reasonably conversant with the leading questions of the day has no time for wide reading, and is too likely to be discouraged by an exhaustive "bibliography." THE CHAUTAUQUAN will seek to serve its subscribers by calling attention each month to a list of representative books, and typical articles which deal with the different phases of some one topic of current interest. The Current Events Programs are prepared for the use of clubs, college and other literary societies, women's clubs and organizations desiring direction for current events courses.]

IV.—DIVORCE.*

INTRODUCTORY.—The question of divorce did not become prominent in literature until the movement for divorce reform, which has been an outgrowth of the last thirty years, brought the subject before the public. In the late sixties the condition of laws in New England, especially Connecticut, aroused grave doubt in many minds. President Woolsey published the first able treatise, appearing serially in *The New Englander* and afterwards in book form. In 1881 emerged the New England Divorce Reform League, and, four years later, this developed into a national organization. The Annual Reports of the National Divorce Reform League contain much valuable and timely information. The secretary and most active worker in these organizations was Rev. Samuel W. Dike, whose papers in *The Princeton Review* (1884), *The Andover Review* (1885-1886), *The Evening Post* and various magazines (at different times) served to draw attention to the general question, especially its immensity and legal status. In March, 1887, congress made a special appropriation for investigation and the collection of statistics relating to divorce, which work was well accomplished by Mr. Carroll D. Wright. His report has become the accepted basis for all statistical statements.

Statistics:

Allen, Nathan. "Divorce in New England." (*North American Review*, Vol. CXXX., p. 547.) This is a good statement, giving the laws and statistics for each of the New England states.

Compendium of the Eleventh Census. If available, this will give the most recent government statistics, although they are not so carefully arranged as in Mr. Wright's report.

"Dictionary of Statistics." (Mulhall). Pp. 217-226. Here will be found statistics and tables of ratios for all countries, arranged by states, counties and cities, with religious affiliations, occupations, etc.

"Encyclopedia Britannica." Ninth Edition. Exhaustively treated with respect to European countries in Vol. VII., p. 300; similarly treated with respect to America in the American Supplement, Vol. II., p. 1055.

"Encyclopedia of Social Reform." (Bliss.) Pp. 504-508. A good presentation on statistical, legal and religious grounds, with digest of laws for each state, with tables.

Meriwether, L. "Is Divorce a Remedy?" (*Westminster Review*, Vol. CXXXI., p. 676.) For a debate this will be helpful. Gives analysis of causes in seventy-five instances, and also tables showing the chances of a given couple living together for life-time.

Wright, Carroll D. "Special Report of the Commissioner of Labor on Marriage and Divorce." (Washington, 1889.) A voluminous work, well compiled, giving laws in each state, the history of the movement of divorce, and all sorts of statistics. In the appendix is a most comprehensive collection of laws and tables for European countries.

Legal:

Bennett, Edmund H. "National Divorce Legislation." (*Forum*, Vol. II., p. 294.) One of the best summaries of the condition of divorce legislation. Concludes that only solution is through national legislation, as in the case of bankruptcy.

Bishop, J. P. "Commentaries on the Laws of Marriage and Divorce." (Boston, 1891, 2 vols.) The author is a jurist of sound judgment, and the book stands in the front rank as a legal presentation. Very suggestive for a debate or paper.

Carlier, A. "Marriage in the United States." (New York, 1867.) Treats of divorce in England and France as compared with the United States, in a concise and interesting manner. Though out of date for facts, its arguments are still sound.

Davis, N. "Marriage and Divorce." (*North American Review*, Vol. CXXXIX., p. 30.) An argument the conclusion of which is that the only remedy lies in amendment to the constitution.

*"Party Government in England, France and the United States" appeared in October. "Trusts" appeared in November. "Village Improvement Associations and Kindred Topics" appeared in December.

Geary, N. "The Laws of Marriage and Family Relations." (New York, 1892.) For its unbiased statements and careful analysis this is a good book, though beyond the ordinary reader's comprehension.

Lalor's Cyclopaedia of Political Science. Vol. III., p. 808, gives digest of laws in each state. Vol. I., p. 821, gives digest of laws in the countries of the world.

Noble, Charles. "Compendium and Comparative View of the Thirty-eight State Laws of Marriage and Divorce." (New York, 1882.) Full of facts, well digested and arranged, but hard to secure.

Stanton, E. C. "The Need of Liberal Divorce Laws." (*North American Review*, Vol. CXXXIX., p. 234.) An argument to refute Davis. (See above.)

Woolsey, T. D. "Divorce and Divorce Legislation in the United States." (New York, sec. ed., 1882; also *New Englander* for 1867-1868.) Treats historically, as well as legally, with the question among the Hebrews, in Europe since Reformation; in United States it gives able discussion of the legal condition and possible remedies. (See Introduction, above.)

Religious and Ethical:

Bingham, J. F. "Christian Marriage." (New York, 1900.) Gives history and significance of details of marriage ceremony, with text of ceremony for different churches; contains many suggestions for debate, especially from standpoint of sacredness of the marriage bond: it is more than a contract.

Cook, Joseph. "Marriage." (Boston Monday Lecture Series, 1879.) Argument from religious standpoint for so choosing mates as to make divorce unnecessary.

Dwinell, I. E. "Scriptural Grounds for Divorce" and "Easy Divorce." (*New Englander*, Vol. XLII., p. 588 and Vol. XLIII., p. 48.) Careful and suggestive discussion of facts, causes, facilities, evils and remedies. Good for preparing an interesting debate or paper.

Evans, H. D. "A Treatise on the Christian Doctrine of Marriage." (New York, 1870.) Gives in clear outline the church's theory; still timely, though thirty years in print.

Fulton, John. "The Laws of Marriage." (New York, 1883.) Views theory, impediments and dissolution of marriage as seen in laws and decrees of Roman Church.

Mathews, Wm. "Men, Places and Things." (Chicago, 1887.) If this is available, the essay on "Divorce" will be found to be a suggestive analysis of causes.

Phelps, E. J. "Divorce in the United States." (*Forum*, Vol. VIII., p. 349.) Urges that the key to the mischief is that divorced persons may remarry.

Thwing, C. F. "The Family." (Boston, 1887.) Chapters XI. and XII. are a compilation and comprehensive statement of the facts, causes and proposed remedies, both in this and other countries, touching all vital points. Out of print, but good if available.

Comparatively and Historically:

Edinburgh Review, Vol. CV., p. 181. "Rights of Husband and Wife in England." Unsigned article. Gives one a grasp of the English situation.

"Harper's Book of Facts," p. 234. No better brief outline can be found of the progress of divorce legislation, especially in nineteenth century.

Loomis, H. "Divorce Legislation in Connecticut." (*New Englander*, Vol. XXV., p. 436.) An enlightening paper, although restricted to one state.

"Mesalliances." (*Eclectic Magazine*, Vol. LXXII., p. 617.) Unsigned. Compares American and French marriages as probable grounds for divorce.

Westermarck, Edward. "The History of Human Marriage." (New York, 1891.) See Chaps. XIV., XV., and XXIII. A historical treatment based on philosophical reasoning along the lines of fitness and similarity. For a closing argument this will furnish excellent matter.

CURRENT EVENTS PROGRAMS.

First Week —

1. Reading: (1) Selected from the chapter on "The Position of Women," in "The American Commonwealth," by James Bryce. (2) Chapter on "Women" in "French Traits," by W. C. Brownell.
2. Oration: (1) Divorce reform: legal and ethical. (2) Intemperance and divorce.
3. Paper: (1) The relation of Socialism to the family. (2) The growth of divorce in the United States compared to other countries.
4. Debate: Resolved, That the freedom of the American girl fosters divorce.

Second Week —

1. Reading: (1) From "National Divorce Legislation," by E. H. Bennett, listed above. (2) "Marriage," by Joseph Cook, listed above.
2. Oration: The philosophy of marriage.
3. Paper: (1) National Divorce legislation. (2) The legal status of husband and wife.

4. Debate: Resolved, That the church can do more for divorce reform than legislatures.

Third Week —

1. Reading: Selected from "Women and Economics," by Charlotte Perkins Stetson.
2. Oration: The family and the state.
3. Paper: (1) The institution of the family in primitive civilization. (2) Domestic science and divorce.
4. Debate: Resolved, That present industrial conditions tend to increase the divorce evil.

Fourth Week —

1. Reading: (1) From "Easy Divorce," by I. E. Dwinell, listed above. (2) Essay on "Divorce," by Wm. Mathews, listed above.
2. Oration: (1) The need of liberal divorce laws. (2) Social ambition and divorce.
3. Paper: (1) Marriage ceremonies in different countries. (2) Digest of state divorce laws.
4. Debate: Resolved, That a uniform divorce law is impracticable in the United States.

NEWS FROM THE CIRCLES.

BEYOND THE MISSISSIPPI.

The Escondido, California, Circle, which contributed photographs of the home of "Ramona" to the Round Table last year, is publishing its weekly programs in *The Times* of that city, and from the character of the programs it is evident that the work is up to the usual high standard. Very few of the circles in the state seem to have fallen by the way. Among the active ones are the Williamson and Glen Echo, of Oakland, Vallejo, Niles, Fowler, San Jose, Johannesburg, Newman and Santa Clara. At Orange is a strong new circle and another has been formed quite recently at Nordhoff. At Dallas, Oregon, a number of 1904's have been enrolled.

Several more new circles have reported from Colorado, Claremont, Manitou, Gold Hill, Rico and Boulder being among the number. The Society of the Hall in the Grove of Beatrice, Nebraska, is continuing its studies in Shakespeare, taking up this fall the play of "Cymbeline." The Central City Circle has a large membership. New circles are reported from Albion and Petersburg, Nebraska, and one at Worthing, South Dakota, while the Flandreau Chautauquans are reorganizing with so large a new membership that they have decided to form two circles. The 1903's number sixteen and have taken the name of "Athena." The 1904's are reported as starting out with excellent prospects. They accepted the friendly invitation of the other circle to hold a joint meeting with them early in the year.

Oklahoma circles have promise of a busy year. At Guthrie ten members are trying the course for the first time, with conspicuous success. The Enid Circle devised a plan for inviting their acquaintances to a preliminary meeting, when six of the guests promptly decided to enter the circle. Kingfisher and Earlboro have become new Chautauqua centers. At Chickasha, Indian Territory, the Chautauquans have taken up their responsibilities with a zeal which promises a future for the circle. We note with pleasure that the critic's report of this circle convinced the membership that they had room for improvement! The circle deserves to be congratulated both for its competent and evidently tactful critic and for its own thoroughly Chautauquan attitude toward self-education.

The Mitchellville, Iowa, Circle has adopted

the excellent plan of working out the answers to the questions on the memoranda as a part of each evening's work. The plan suggested in the November Round Table may perhaps contain some different features which can be utilized.

The Knoxville *Journal* published one of the programs of the Vincent C. L. S. C. and in commenting upon it remarked, "the people who think that all women have to do is to gossip about the fashions and their neighbors, ought to hear this class."

Two circles in Creston have been heard from very recently, the Bon Ami and the S. H. G. The latter society, which was organized in 1897 and federated with the Iowa clubs in 1898, has prepared a very attractive year book. We give specimen programs for two meetings. The circle is studying three of Shakespeare's plays.

OCTOBER TWELFTH.

Quotations,
Chautauqua Topic,
King Richard III., Synopsis,
Act I.,
Recitation,

Shakespeare.
Mrs. Ellis.
Mrs. Winhafer.
Mrs. Thomas.
Hattie Ellis.

OCTOBER TWENTY-SIXTH.

Roll-call,
Chautauqua Topic,
Act II.,
Paper, "Biographical Sketch of Richard III."

Current Events.
Mrs. Grubb.
Mrs. Sterner.
Mrs. Nye.

The organizer of the new circle at Ames, Iowa, evidently has a genius for leadership, since she writes that she has enlisted five readers at Rondout, New York, and sixteen at Prattsburg, in the same state. New circles are reported from Carson, Clinton, Carroll, Lake Park, and Iowa Falls. Old circles at many other points are reporting, and will be heard from in greater detail later.

Three graduates at Valley Junction who are taking up one of the new garnet seal courses, write: "We are going to have a sort of S. H. G. between ourselves this year and this is the beginning of our work." The Marion C. L. S. C. had twenty-nine members present at a recent meeting and carried out a fine program.

The Vincent Circle of Des Moines are giving much thoughtful study to some of Shakespeare's plays. "King John" has been under discussion for some time and "Richard III." will be taken up next. The published program of the Chautauqua Park

Circle shows close attention to the studies of the year.

MICHIGAN, ILLINOIS AND INDIANA.

The president of the Nunica, Michigan, C. L. S. C. writes for C. L. S. C. pins, as the members want to provide themselves with all the emblems of true Chautauquans. She adds, "The circle here is doing very well. Chautauqua improves every year." New circles have recently been formed at Big Rapids and at Stephenson, each with a fine membership.

At Grand Crossing, Ill., a very interesting experiment in circle work has been carried on for the past eight years and will be described more fully later, as it possesses some features of special value.

In Danville Chautauqua activity is more than usually apparent. At Oak Park the Maecenas Club are members of the Class of 1904. A new circle at Greenvew is the result of interest awakened at the Old Salem Chautauqua, and they will doubtless become leaders in C. L. S. C. affairs at that assembly. A little nucleus of enthusiastic Chautauquans at any assembly can make their influence felt very widely. At Fulton seven members of the Class of 1904 with three local members make a circle of very convenient size for good work, and at Aurora, plans for a C. L. S. C. are being agitated at the Y. W. C. A. Springfield Chautauquans being very largely graduates are branching out upon postgraduate courses.

A large circle has been formed in the Central Presbyterian Church of Joliet under the direction of the pastor, Dr. Milner, for many years superintendent of the Ottawa, Kansas, Assembly. The membership of the circle brings together people of quite different occupations and their diverse gifts promise to make the programs both varied and profitable. Winona Branch Circles from Illinois also constitute a fine list, Blue Mound with twenty-one members for 1904, Charleston with eleven, Alexis with four, Maroa with eighteen and Kenney with ten. The graduates of 1900 at Decatur, Indiana, have organized themselves into a Society of the Hall in the Grove for special course study, and have taken up the new special course on Russia. Elkhart, one of the oldest of C. L. S. C. towns, sends the names of undergraduates for renewal of membership, and the Terre Haute Circle is adding several 1904's to its membership, heretofore composed largely of '03's. A member of the Class of '98 in Jeffersonville is showing

the altruistic spirit of the true C. L. S. C. graduate by organizing a circle of eleven members, nine of whom belong to the new class. The new Fort Wayne Circle has taken the name of Plymouth. New circles are also reported from Roann and Crawfordsville, while the Kokomo readers, numbering more than a hundred, are carrying out their usual effective methods of study. Winona Chautauquans at Monticello write: "Our circle is interested more and more."

OHIO.

The Broad Street Methodist Episcopal Church Circle of Columbus has elected its new pastor, Dr. McElroy, president, Dr. W. F. Oldham, the organizer of the circle, having been made western secretary of the Missionary Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church. Dr. Oldham also conducted a very successful circle in Pittsburg for many years and the Broad Street members are fortunate in finding in their new pastor an enthusiastic leader.

Several new circles have been formed in the suburbs of Cleveland and the number in the city itself steadily increases. The circle at the Euclid Avenue Presbyterian Church in Cleveland took no vacation last summer. The president, Miss Griswold, gives an interesting account of this indefatigable club of girls, many of whom are in business all day long, but are bent upon improving their opportunities for self-education:

"Rather than adjourn for the summer, the Book Club of the Euclid Avenue Presbyterian Church turned its meetings into outing excursions, and every other Saturday found us, with note-books and lunches, in one of the parks. Our subject for study, American Expansion, was a heavy one to pursue in such a public place, still we made sufficient progress to feel that the outings were as profitable as they were certainly enjoyable.

"In name we are a book club, but as to working plan, we are a conversational club. Each meeting is placed under the leadership of two members to whom the president has previously assigned two advance chapters in American Expansion. As the two leaders are different for each meeting, in time everyone serves in that capacity. We are all supposed to read the chapters assigned before the meeting, but the two leaders read them very carefully, jotting down on paper merely the salient points and doing whatever extra reading they consider necessary. At the close of the meeting they hand these notes to the secretary who copies them into her book. Thus we expect to have a permanent record of our work, which will be of value to us for future reference. The president conducts the roll-call for business, then turns the meeting over to the two leaders. The club at once becomes a circle of friends discussing a subject of mutual interest. The conversation is controlled by the two leaders, and, because of their fuller knowledge of it, is necessarily mainly carried on by them. But we all feel at perfect liberty to enter into the conversation at any time when

"My! but this
is a
brilliant
reception."



SAPOLIO
MAKES THE PROSPECT BRIGHT
For the New Year and the New Century.

any one of us desires to emphasize a certain point, to ask a question, or to add something of interest to what has already been said. We have made use of the suggestive programs in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*, for supplementary reading purposes.

"Our plan seems to be the best one for our club. Many of us have very little time to give to study. Individually we are gaining greater power in telling what we know or have read. The club as a whole also gains, for as the leader talks to us we all feel our interest awakened much more than if we listened to a paper."

PENNSYLVANIA AND NEW JERSEY.

The circle at Sellersville has been very successful in its methods of work, and other Chautauquans will be interested to know its plan of procedure. We give one of the programs and a selection from the secretary's report which present the whole subject very clearly:

IRVING CHAUTAUQUA CIRCLE PROGRAM.

October 27, 1900, at the Home of —

Singing.

Roll-call: Answered by quotations from historians and men of affairs concerning the French Revolution.

Reading of minutes and approval.

Appointment of critic.

Items of important news.

French Revolution. Chap. 5. By Mr. David D. Cressman.

Rivalry of Nations. Chap. 4. In *CHAUTAUQUAN*. By Joseph W. Daub.

Critical Study: The Song of Roland in *CHAUTAUQUAN*.

By Miss Anna G. Dannehower.

Story of the Great Siege of Gibraltar. By Miss Elsie Schlichter.

Report of critic.

Business.

Announcements.

Singing and adjournment.

"The president appoints an Executive or Program Committee of three members, who serve for three months, at the expiration of which time another committee is appointed to serve for a like period. Instead of making a program at each meeting, we decided to have the committee meet as soon as *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* is received and make out programs for the entire month of four or five meetings. In this way we save time at the meetings and avoid the possibility of having one person on the program too often and another not at all. The committee has met and made programs for the month of October and we believe the plan will be a decided improvement on the old one. 'Important News' requires each member to give something of importance read in the newspapers during the week.

"Each book of the course is under the leadership of one of the members, who either volunteers or is appointed for it. This person conducts each lesson in the book and makes use of the questions in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* to quiz. The article on the Rivalry of Nations is to be conducted by a different member each month. The other articles of the Required Reading in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* are led by members appointed by the Executive Committee. We select miscellaneous work from the Suggestive Programs, whichever best suits the other part of the program. Our programs usually last about two hours, after which we have a social time."

The following account of the Buckingham Chautauqua reunion held in October shows

the strong social tie which binds this club together:

"The home of Mr. and Mrs. Lewis W. Fell, of Buckingham, was put in holiday attire on Tuesday evening for the leading social fete of the season — the annual gathering of the Buckingham Chautauqua Club. . . . The lawn, decorated with Japanese lanterns, gave a hint that something unusual was going on.

"The annual meeting is held at the home of one of the members who attends the least number of times during the year, and while Mrs. Fell's name is not chalked down as being the most frequent absentee, she gives the banquet at her own request. This is the occasion when husbands participate, and they always heartily enjoy the hospitality afforded them. Social conversation, touching upon the topics of the times, and other indoor social features while away the fitting moments. An elegant banquet was served at 8 o'clock."

The Franklin C. L. S. C. of Steelton reports reorganization with a large membership and much interest. From the Walton M. E. Church of Pittsburg fifteen members for 1904 are reported. Bradford, with a town full of graduates, has organized a new circle. At Reading a member of 1903 who read alone last year has enlisted the companionship of a number of others. A new circle at Knox begins with nine members, with prospects of others.

At Newark, New Jersey, a C. L. S. C. is connected with the College of Music, and holds its sessions twice a month under the direction of a skilled leader. The Whittier Circle of Bayonne, and the C. L. S. C. of Metuchen, reorganized for the new year.

NEW YORK.

The president of the A. M. Martin Circle of Chautauqua, N. Y., sends the following message to the Round Table:

"We have planned a special meeting for New Year's eve, the program to consist mostly of the great events of the century, after which we are to march in a body down to the pier, and all help to ring in the new century with the Bryant Bell."

The Jefferson County Alumni, as its name indicates, is an association of C. L. S. C. graduates of Jefferson county. A recent report shows how widespread are the interests of this association:

"The second annual meeting of the Jefferson County Chautauqua Alumni Association was held at the home of Mrs. L. J. Wait, Belleville, New York, on the afternoon of October 11. Fifteen members were present. A delicious luncheon had been prepared by the Belleville members and was charmingly served by Mrs. Wait, Miss Wait, and Miss Frame. The association was given a cordial greeting by the president, Mrs. Jane Hunting, of Belleville. Mrs. D. W. Young, of Adams, the county secretary, was called to the chair and read letters of regret from Watertown, Buffalo, Oswego, Rodman, Adams and Chaumont.

"After a vote of thanks to the hostess, Mrs. Wait,

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rubbing.*

Coarser
Things



*-it's sure
and makes work
easy.*

• • • • • If this isn't true,
millions of people have been
fooled billions of times.

and the other Belleville members for their generous and graceful hospitality, the association adjourned to meet with Mrs. I. L. Hunt, of Adams, the first Tuesday in October, 1901."

The officers for the new year are president, Mrs. I. L. Hunt, Adams, New York; secretary, Mrs. D. W. Young, Adams, New York. The treasurer and the seven vice-presidents represent the towns of Henderson, Buffalo, Watertown, Rodman, and Adams Center. This alumni association is accomplishing for the scattered graduates of the county what the S. H. G.'s are able to do in the larger towns. It has already had a strong influence, and a useful career is predicted for it. The circle at Three Mile Bay, composed of undergraduates, is doing fine work. Louisville, in St. Lawrence county, has organized its first circle; as has Hensonville, in Greene county. Binghamton has two circles, the larger one connected with the Methodist Episcopal Church and a second one doing good work under the leadership of Miss A. L. Bingener, a teacher. New circles are reported from Ithaca and Afton. Erieville has a fine new organization of fourteen, and at Orangeport also fourteen 1904's are beginning their career. Canandaigua Chautauquans, under the leadership of Mr. Lightfoote, have encouraged the formation of a new circle in the neighboring town of Despatch. Genoa is a reorganized Chautauqua center, and Springville reports fifteen both old and new readers. The Riverside Circle of Buffalo, is planning to use the Chautauqua lantern slides loaned by the General Office. These have been used very effectively in many places and are in great demand. Holley, New York, which supports a vigorous alumni, has now a new circle of twelve members. The Rochester Chautauquans are also at work. The region round about Chautauqua is more than usually active. There are three circles at Jamestown, one at Bemus Point, and a fine circle at Panama presided over by a "Pioneer."

The Newburgh Circle is carrying out its general plan for the winter, which includes the assignment of the subjects of the course to different leaders who make thorough preparation and so guide the deliberations of the rest. The opening evening was devoted to a stereopticon lecture on Oberammergau, by the secretary, Miss Ritchie, who attended the Passion Play this summer. The circle issues a card giving the dates, subjects, and names of leaders for each meeting, and adds the following invitation:

"These lessons are entirely free and everyone is

invited to secure the benefit of them. They are non-sectarian and the various pastors, day and Sunday-school teachers throughout the city are requested to take an interest in and aid in the work, and to interest their friends, scholars and children in this winter course of study.

"Suggestions and counsel from any and all thinkers are solicited, and kindly discussion will be encouraged from all who desire to advance education and wise thinking."

The Edelweiss Chautauqua Circle of Mt. Vernon, devoted some time at a recent meeting to discussion of well-known books. The circle's interest in nature study took the form of an original poem by Mrs. Kern, who described a hornet's nest which had been built under her observation during the summer.

The Winthrop Home Circle of Brooklyn, is composed of a company of young people under the leadership of Miss Spurway, of the Class of 1901. At the opening meeting part of the Chautauqua Vesper Service was used, and the circle made varied plans for the winter's work. This enthusiastic little circle contributed six dollars to the fund for the banner for the Class of 1901 as an expression of their esteem for their leader, a member of that class. At Long Island City is a new circle under the conduct of one of the local pastors. At Woodhaven and at Ozone Park new circles have been organized. At Panama in Chautauqua county the circle celebrated Bryant Memorial Day with appropriate exercises, an interesting feature of which were personal reminiscences of the poet by one of the circle who is not far from eighty years of age.

NEW ENGLAND.

In Connecticut, Chautauqua circles seem to have sprung up in all parts of the state. The Wapping Circle is in its ninth year of reading. At Redding the indefatigable C. L. S. C.'s continue to make conquests for the new class. New circles have formed at West Hartford and at Somers. The Waterbury Chautauquans are already making a name for themselves with a membership of fifty divided into neighborhood circles and meeting all together once in six weeks. At Chester the pastor of the Congregational Church anticipates a membership of ten or fifteen readers. Derby, which quite outdid itself last year, has reorganized with at least fifty, and at Wallingford a steady interest in the work has kept up since 1898, fifteen members of the present circle belonging to the Class of 1902.

The Vincent Circle of Auburn, Rhode Island, expects to graduate quite a number

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MISTRESS: I feel so tired, Mary. What have you brought?

MAID: A cup of tea, Madam, I thought it would refresh you.

MISTRESS: The Doctor says I am not to take tea, Mary, it is not good for the nerves, so take it away again. Bring me a cup of Van Houten's Cocoa which is recommended as soothing to the nerves, and refreshing. I think it a delicious beverage and it smells so enticing. And, Mary, see that your stock of Van Houten's Cocoa does not run out.

MAID: Yes M'am. (*Exit.*)

Sold at all grocery stores. Order it next time.

of members with the Class of 1901. The Roger Williams Circle of Edgewood, near Providence, held a Chautauqua Vesper Service at Casino Hall on Sunday evening, November 3, which was largely attended. The circle has some seventy members and holds weekly meetings on Friday afternoons.

Eleven members of the Waltham, Massachusetts, branch of the Keep Pace Circle have formed an independent circle, taking the name "Pieria." At Wilbraham, a new C. L. S. C. has started under very favorable conditions. The Worcester Club, which is taking the Russian course, is evidently doing work worthy of its traditions. At Cambridgeport, the new circle starts with eight members, and is planning to use the Chautauqua stereopticon slides for an illustrated lecture. Ellsworth, Maine, adds twelve members to the Class of 1904.

THE SOUTH.

An enthusiastic company are the Chautauquans composing the new Minerva Circle of Rising Sun, Maryland. They have chosen for their motto, "*Non sine labore*;" for their flower, the lily of the valley, and for colors, red and white. The general class color of 1904 being gray, the combination will be an effective one. At a recent meeting a spirited debate was held on the question, "Resolved, that the civilization of the world would be more rapidly advanced under a number of nations than under a great world power." The judges decided in favor of the affirmative.

The Class of 1901 claims a circle at Chesterfield, South Carolina. They write: "The current year will complete our four years' course and the time devoted has been pleasantly and, I trust, profitably spent." We hope that this circle may send some of their number to Chautauqua next summer to graduate. At Greenville, a town with a long Chautauqua history, a new circle has been formed of 1904's. The Dixie Circle of Greenwood, shows no diminution of its ardor. "Our C. L. S. C. starts on the new year's work with larger numbers and greater interest than ever before. Our first vice-president, Mr. H. L. Watson, is one of the editors of *The Greenwood Index*. Our new president is very enthusiastic and all members are planning for better work than we have heretofore accomplished." At Greenville, the Henry Timrod C. L. S. C. includes eleven bright young women. The yellow jasmine has been selected as the circle flower.

That the circle at Augusta, Georgia, is deep in work is evidenced by a lively discus-

sion over the search question on the founder of the Holy Roman Empire and an appeal to the Central Office for more light. The Jacksonville, Florida, circle was reorganized in October, and a new C. L. S. C. is being agitated in another part of the town.

Rev. J. H. Miller, a leader in the Chautauqua life of Jacksonville, Florida, and one of the vice-presidents of the Class of 1901, has recently removed to Parkersburg, West Virginia, where he has organized a new circle.

A member of the Class of 1904 from Gadsden, Alabama, carried home from Chautauqua enough circulars and enthusiasm to inspire her own daughter and a number of other maidens, who, though unable to form a circle, are enrolled as readers, and counseled and encouraged by their friendly leader. The Chautauqua work in Selma is flourishing under the leadership of Mrs. Jarvis, and a Society of the Hall in the Grove is under consideration. A new circle from Eupora, Mississippi, represents a field entirely unexplored by Chautauqua. At Navastota, Texas, a new Chautauqua community, the Pierian Club has voted to take up the C. L. S. C. four years' plan. The circle at Denton has reorganized with a large membership. Two circles of 1904's, eight at Mineral Wells and twelve at Weatherford, are just beginning. They were organized through workers interested in the Winona Assembly and so belong to the Winona branch of the C. L. S. C. At East Nashville, Tennessee, a neighborhood circle is meeting Wednesday afternoons and devoting special attention to the French Revolution. In Nashville itself the circle is planning to use the Chautauqua lantern slide lecture as loaned by the Central Office. Louisville, Kentucky, reports two large circles, "Immanuel" and "Highland," the result of interest awakened at the Winona Assembly.

CANADA.

The Pleasant Hour C. L. S. C. of Brantford, reports its usual state of prosperity. This circle is more than fifteen years old and since dropping its undergraduate studies has specialized upon Shakespeare, doing the work with great thoroughness. Its leader, Professor Wickens, has always watched over the growth of Chautauqua work in his part of Canada and now reports a probable new circle at Walkerville.

The Brockville C. L. S. C. has doubled its membership this year, and at Westport a new circle is well under way. Halifax, Nova Scotia, also reports a new circle.

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The biographer of a man who, like Parkman, was even finer and nobler in his being than in his doing, memorable and valuable as that was, is not under bonds to conform to the usage established for the writing of biography. Mr. Farnham has done well to lay the lesser stress on the chronology of Parkman's life and



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the greater on the development of the heroic character, of the superb mastery of hindering conditions, for which the great historian of New France will be remembered and revered. In reading the story of his life, so admirably related and interpreted by Mr. Farnham, one is reminded of some eloquent words by Phillips Brooks, and made to feel that Parkman was an incarnate realization of their appeal. "O, do not pray for easy lives. Pray to be stronger men! Do not pray for tasks equal to your powers. Pray for powers equal to your tasks! Then the doing of your work shall be no miracle. But you shall be a miracle." The "Life" is a handsomely made book, containing more than three hundred and fifty pages of text, three appendices and an ample index. The subject is treated under the topics Preparation, Parkman as Seen in His Works, Spiritual Growth.

A. E. H.

[Life of Francis Parkman. By Charles Haight Farnham. \$2.50. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.] —

The introduction written for Mr. Holman F. Day's "Up in Maine" by the Hon. C. E. Littlefield, of congressional oratory fame, reads as if the writing had been hard in both the serious and the semi-jocose sentences. But Mr. Day's "Stories of Yankee Life Told in Verse" run along most musically and touch with the straightforward simplicity of dialect, pure and simple, upon the homely details of the hard work, the hearty good-fellowship and the solid comfort that abound on the farms, along the coast, and in the logging camps of Maine. Pathos is not lacking though breathed through idioms that sound like slang of the most pronounced order. The "Stories" are grouped under the sub-titles, "Round Home," "Long Shore," "Drive, Camp, and Wangan," "Hosses," and "Goin's t' School."

A. E. H.

[Up in Maine. By Holman F. Day. 4½ x 7½. \$1.00. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.]

A device which will prove of service to ministers, teachers, students, and literary workers, is the Clipping-File. By the use of this file material is classified in a simple, rational manner. An ingenious arrangement of pockets does away with trimming and pasting. The topical index enables one instantly to find any clipping filed, and avoids the necessity of the more cumbersome alphabetic index. The pockets and index stand in a case which resembles a book, and any pocket may be removed without disturbing the others. The user of the file is aided in his filing by the system of classification printed on the pockets. This contains a complete analysis of the sciences, arts, and occupations, and enables one to begin filing with any subject, and to expand the system in any direction, without duplication of topics or confusion of thought.

C. C. T.

[The Clipping-File. A Mental Savings Bank. \$1.00. Cleveland: Clipping-File Co.]

Literary sketches, "governed by the pictorial spirit," having for their subject romance-haunted regions wherein the charm of Old France abides to lay its spell upon modern times, carry with them the colors of painting and the tones of music when Mr. Henry James, who realizes and acknowledges his indebtedness to the genius of France, speaks in his earlier manner through the sketches. The "Little Tour" is the record of happy journeyings made several years ago through Touraine, thence in an irregular semi-circle from Brittany into the Provence of minstrelsy, and from that enchanted zone northward as far as Dijon. Cathedral and castle, landscape and river, the historical personage and the fair image fashioned forth by romance or poesy, all these appear as we read, seen as we see persons and places in a delightful dream. To make the enjoyment less intangible Mr. Joseph Pennell was sent on an after-journey in Mr. James's footsteps and we have as

a result about seventy drawings that harmonize perfectly with the text in subject and spirit. The distinctive literary quality pervading these travel-sketches and the poetic value of the illustrations justify the elegance apparent in the outward presentment of the volume and emphasize its peculiar fitness for holiday token of reminder to those who have taken the self-same tour or of consolation to those who have traveled that way only in dreams.

A. E. H.

[A Little Tour in France. By Henry James. With illustrations by Joseph Pennell. \$3.00. Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.]

Two small volumes on the common miracles continually in process about us have been written by the eminent scientist, Elisha Gray, for service to the lay reader who has not had the advantages of a technical scientific education and as a help to the young reader whose education for future usefulness must include a practical knowledge of the latest discoveries of science and of their marvelous adaptation to the increase of man's power and comfort. The first volume treats of Earth, Air, and Water, and the history of their combined agency in shaping the world for the abode of man; the second discusses "the primal elements — not only of life but of material existence itself," Energy, Sound, Heat, Light, and Explosives. As handbooks of information, profitable and interesting, they are to be commended. A third volume, treating of Electricity and Magnetism, is in preparation.

A. E. H.

[Nature's Miracles. Familiar Talks on Science. By Elisha Gray. Vol. I. World-Building and Life. Vol. II. Energy and Vibration. Each 4½ x 6½. .60. New York: Ford, Howard & Hulbert.]

The "Experiences" of our countrywomen, Penelope, Salemina, and Francesca, reduced by the first-named to a record at once personal, social and international, and exercising, as they certainly do, a holiday influence upon the spirits of all readers, abundantly deserve the gala dress in which they now appear. Moreover, the fifty and more illustrations to each volume have the illuminating quality of making real to the vision the gaiety of the situation or subject described in the text. Not alone to England and Scotland, but to whatever other parts of Europe and to all those regions of Asia and Africa whither Baedeker and Cook go, thither also would we have this cheerful trio go and allow us to bear them company. The effect of Penelope's romantic disposition, Salemina's majesty tempered with common sense, and Francesca's beauty upon historical associations and modern society is too gratifying to national pride to be described in a brief magazine notice. It must be felt in and between the lines and laughed over to be appreciated. *Bon voyage* to the triangular traveling party now in Ireland, and long may they a-traveling go!

A. E. H.

[Penelope's Experiences. Vol. I. England. Vol. II. Scotland. By Kate Douglas Wiggin. \$4.00 a set. Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.]

About forty of the best cartoons which J. H. Donahay drew for the Cleveland *Plain Dealer* during the year 1900 have been reprinted in book form. The drawings are reproduced on thick paper, and the edition is limited to six hundred. A charming feature of the collection is the "brief word of introduction" with which Mr. Donahay prefaces his work; before, as he says, "he lets the pencil push aside the pen." These cartoons are chiefly noted for their entire and refreshing lack of coarseness or brutality. It is Mr. Donahay's often expressed belief "that morals may be pointed without malice, and that satire can be free from scurrility."

J. M. S.

[Donahay's Cartoons. Drawn by J. H. Donahay for the Cleveland *Plain Dealer*. Cleveland: Vinson & Korner.]

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- Friend or Foe. A Tale of Connecticut during the War of 1812. By Frank Samuel Child. 5 x 7 $\frac{1}{2}$. \$1.50.
 The Gentle Boy and Other Tales. (The Riverside Literature Series.) By Nathaniel Hawthorne. With Notes. 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ x 7. .15.
 The Black Gown. By Ruth Hall. 5 x 7 $\frac{1}{2}$. \$1.50.
 A Georgian Bungalow. By Frances Courtenay Baylor. 5 x 7 $\frac{1}{2}$. \$1.00.
 Squirrels and Other Fur-Bearers. By John Burroughs. 5 x 7 $\frac{1}{2}$. \$1.00.
 Riverside Aldine Classics. Evangeline, Longfellow; Snow-Bound, etc., Whittier; One-Hoss Shay, etc., Holmes; Sir Launfal, etc., Lowell; Legends of Province House, etc., Hawthorne. Each 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ x 6 $\frac{1}{2}$. .50 each.
 An Indian Giver. By W. D. Howells. 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ x 6. .50.
 The Smoking Car. By W. D. Howells. 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ x 6. .50.

D. C. HEATH & CO., BOSTON.

- A German Reader for Beginners. (Heath's Modern Language Series.) With an Introduction on English-German Cognates, Notes and Vocabulary. By H. C. L. Husar. 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ x 7 $\frac{1}{2}$.
 German Lyrics and Ballads. (Heath's Modern Language Series.) With a Few Epigrammatic Poems. Selected and arranged by James Taft Hatfield. 5 x 7 $\frac{1}{2}$.
 Benedix's Der Prozess. (Heath's Modern Language Series.) Edited with an Introduction, Notes and a Vocabulary, by Benjamin W. Wells, Ph. D. 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ x 6 $\frac{1}{2}$.
 Heyse's Das Madchen von Treppi. (Heath's Modern Language Series.) Edited with Introduction, Notes, Vocabulary and Paraphrases for Translation into German. By Edward S. Joynes. 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ x 6 $\frac{1}{2}$. .30.

GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE, WASHINGTON.

- Fourteenth Annual Report of the Commissioner of Labor. 1899. Water, Gas, and Electric Light Plants Under Private and Municipal Ownership. 6 x 9 $\frac{1}{2}$.
 Annual Report of the Board of Regents of the Smithsonian Institution, showing the operation, expenditures, and condition of the institution. For the year ending June 30, 1898. Report of the United States National Museum. 6 $\frac{1}{2}$ x 9 $\frac{1}{2}$.
 Report of the Commissioner of Education for the Year 1898-99. Volume 1. 6 x 9 $\frac{1}{2}$.

THE MACMILLAN CO., NEW YORK.

- An Introduction to the New Testament. By Benjamin Wisner Bacon, D. D. 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ x 7 $\frac{1}{2}$.
 Government in Switzerland. (The Citizen's Library.) By Joyn Martin Vincent, Ph. D. 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ x 7 $\frac{1}{2}$. \$1.25.
 The Works of Shakespeare. Edited by Israel Gollancz. Volume XII. Illustrated. 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ x 7 $\frac{1}{2}$. \$1.50.
 A Second Manual of Composition. Designed for use in secondary schools. By Edwin Herbert Lewis, Ph. D. 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ x 7 $\frac{1}{2}$. .90.

EATON & MAINS, NEW YORK.

- Illustrative Notes. A Guide to the Study of the International Sunday-School Lessons. With original and selected comments, methods of teaching, illustrative stories, practical applications, notes on eastern life, library references, maps, tables, pictures, diagrams. 1901. Rev. Thomas Benjamin Neely, D. D., LL. D. Robert Remington Doherty, Ph. D. 6 x 9. \$1.25.

W. B. SAUNDERS & COMPANY, PHILADELPHIA.

- A Manual of Personal Hygiene. Edited by Walter L. Pyle, A. M., M. D. Contributors: J. W. Courtney, M. D., George Howard Fox, M. D., E. Fletcher Ingals, M. D., Walter L. Pyle, M. D., B. Alexander Randall, M. D., G. N. Stewart, M. D. (Edin.), Charles G. Stockton, M. D. Illustrated. 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ x 8 $\frac{1}{2}$. \$1.50.

AMERICAN RAILWAY GUIDE CO., CHICAGO.

- The Rand-McNally Official Railway Guide and Hand Book. Sept. 1900. 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ x 7. .25.
 The Rand-McNally Official Railway Guide and Hand Book. Oct. 1900. 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ x 7. .25.
 The Rand-McNally Official Railway Guide and Hand Book. Nov. 1900. 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ x 7. .25.

BARBEE & SMITH, NASHVILLE, TENN.; DALLAS, TEX.

- Agents Publishing House of the M. E. Church, South.
 The Son of Man: Studies in His Life and Teachings. By Gross Alexander, S. T. D. With an Introduction by Jno. J. Tigert, D. D., LL. D. 5 x 7 $\frac{1}{2}$.

UNIVERSITY OF THE STATE OF NEW YORK, ALBANY.

- University of the State of New York. College Department. Second Annual Report, 1899. Vol. 1. Report of Director of Professional Examination Papers 1899 Colleges.

CITY PRESS PRINTING HOUSE, BUFFALO.

- The Secrets of the Sun. By Henry Raymond Rogers, M. D. (A paper prepared at the request of the Young Men's Literary Club of Dunkirk, and read before that body, June 12, 1900.)

THE CHEMICAL PUBLISHING CO., EASTON, PA.

- The Physician's Influence in re Vacation Schools. By Helen C. Putnam, A. B., M. D. (Reprinted from the bulletin of the American Academy of Medicine, October, 1900.)

WM. STANLEY RAY,

(State Printer of Pennsylvania.)

- Annual Report of the Pennsylvania State College. 1898-1899. Part I. Departments of Instruction. Part II. Agricultural Experiment Station. 6 $\frac{1}{2}$ x 9 $\frac{1}{2}$.

R. F. FENNO & CO., NEW YORK.

- Nella, the Heart of the Army. A Novel. By Philip Verrill Mighels. 5 x 7 $\frac{1}{2}$. \$1.25.
 How to Succeed. By Austin Bierbower. 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ x 7.

CHILD OF LIGHT PUBLISHING CO., CHICAGO.

- A Child of Light: or, Heredity and Prenatal Culture. Considered in the light of the new psychology. By Newton N. Riddell. 6 $\frac{1}{2}$ x 9. \$2.00.

SILVER, BURDETT & CO., NEW YORK.

- Pope's Essay on Man and Essay on Criticism. Edited with introduction and notes by Joseph B. Seabury. 5 x 7 $\frac{1}{2}$. .30.

THE F. A. DAVIS CO., PHILADELPHIA.

- An Essay on Creation. Comprehending the Beginning, Course, and end of Time. By Joseph W. McEwen, M. D. 6 $\frac{1}{2}$ x 9.

J. S. OGILVIE PUBLISHING CO., NEW YORK.

- Our Nation's Need; or, Let Us All Divide Up and Start Even. By J. A. Conwell. 5 x 7 $\frac{1}{2}$. \$1.00.

OLIVIA PUBLISHING CO., CHICAGO.

- How to be Attractive and Successful. By Antoinette Van Hoesen. 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ x 8 $\frac{1}{2}$. .20.

THOMAS & MATTILL, CLEVELAND.

- Religion a National Demand. By Rev. G. J. Kirn, M. A., Ph. D. 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ x 7 $\frac{1}{2}$.

M. F. MANSFIELD, NEW YORK.

- The Gentle Art of Good Talking. By Beatrice Knollys. 4 x 7 $\frac{1}{2}$. .75.

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Pears', the finest soap in the world, is scented or not, as you wish, and the money is in the merchandise, not in the box.



*Beware
also
of
Injurious
Imitations.*

All sorts of stores sell it, especially druggists'; all sorts of people are using it.



See page 532.

THE CHAUTAUQUAN,

A Monthly Magazine for Self-Education.

JAN 28 1901

FEBRUARY, 1901

VOL. XXXII.

No. 5.

Highway & Byway



THE general terms of the "preliminary" joint note to the government of China, which has at length been signed by the diplomatic representatives of the powers under definite instructions, and presented to Prince Ching, one of the Chinese peace plenipotentiaries, were set forth in these columns last month; the latest official version thereof shows but few changes. The "penalty" section does not demand the infliction of capital punishment upon princes of the blood; it asks for "the severest punishment for the persons designated in the imperial decree of September 25, 1900, and for those whom the representatives of the powers shall subsequently designate." The indemnity clause names no amount, but provides for payment of "equitable compensation not only to governments, societies, and foreign individuals, but also to natives who have suffered in person or property on account of their connection with the foreign residents." No method of fixing indemnities is specified, and in view of the known inability of China to meet her heavy obligations, she is to "adopt financial measures acceptable to the powers for the purpose of guaranteeing payment of said indemnities."

The other clauses have undergone no modification, and some of them are regarded as hard and incompatible with the principle of China's sovereignty. They demand the destruction of the forts between Peking and the sea, the interdiction of the importation of arms and ammunition, the maintenance of permanent guards at the foreign legations, and the final clause of the note declares that the military occupation of the capital and the whole metropolitan province will not cease until China has fulfilled, or satisfied the concert of her desire and readiness to fulfil, the terms of the peace treaty.

Will the powers abate their demands in any degree? They may, of course, do so, but it is important to note that the demands

upon China are introduced with the following stern and unequivocal statement:

"Inasmuch as China has recognized her responsibility, expressed regret and evinced a desire to see an end put to the situation created by the aforesaid disturbances, the powers have determined to accede to her request upon the irrevocable conditions enumerated below, which they deem indispensable to expiate the crimes committed and to prevent their recurrence."

The word "irrevocable" was inserted in spite of the objections of the United States. Indeed, though Minister Conger was instructed to sign the joint note, our government has made certain reservations in a formal communication to the powers. Beyond maintaining a legation guard it will not join in the military occupation, nor will it lend effective aid in enforcing certain other of the above enumerated peace terms. In a word, our government signed the preliminary note under protest, with great reluctance, and merely in order to avert a division in the concert and further complications.



Western diplomacy is rather puzzled by the action of Kwang Hsu, the emperor of China, in "ordering" his peace plenipotentiaries to sign the preliminary note of the powers. Signing would ordinarily signify acceptance, especially when the terms of a note are therein declared to be "irrevocable." Oriental logic is peculiar, however, and the Chinese emperor is not understood to have committed himself, in his own opinion, to unqualified acceptance of the concert's demands. He accompanied his decree with the expression of hope that some of the articles will be modified—that the forts will only be dismantled, not destroyed, that the legation guards will be of small size, etc. At the same time he authorized the assurance that guaranties would be given of the early and cheerful observance on the part of China of the conditions finally imposed upon

her. The negotiations are not regarded as ended, though it is believed that the emperor's surprising promptness presages an early agreement and the resumption of normal relations with China. The next task is the formulation of new treaties and the



PHYA PRASIDDHI,
Envoy Extraordinary and
Minister Plenipotentiary
from Siam to the
United States, with
residence in
London.

settlement of the indemnity question—both as to the amount and the method of raising it. The emperor is anxious to return to Peking, but nothing definite is known regarding the intentions of the powers in relation to the empress-dowager, who has not been heard from lately. Certain writers urge that the powers deny her recognition and oppose her continuance in imperial authority. The whole situation has doubtless improved,

except in Manchuria, where Russia is suspected of trying to obtain special privileges and a practical sovereignty by means of treaties with China. As this would be a violation of the principle of Chinese integrity, Great Britain and Germany, whose alliance contemplated such an emergency, are expected to enter a vigorous protest.

Secretary Hay asked mission boards in this country suffering losses in China by reason of the Boxer uprising, to file with him statements of property damage. Presbyterians and Methodists have complied, the former naming their loss at \$200,000 and the latter theirs at \$240,000. These sums do not cover personal losses sustained by individual missionaries. Some of these personal losses were very heavy, especially among medical missionaries, who in several instances lost surgical instruments of much value. The loss in Peking amounted to \$50,000 for Presbyterians, and \$40,000 for Methodists. Thirteen Presbyterian chapels were destroyed in the Canton district, so far south that few here are aware any loss at all was sustained there. Mission boards have taken no official action in the matter, but it is the understanding between them that they

will make no demand for indemnity, but will rest with simply filing the statement of losses, as requested to do by our government. An English society, which lost heavily, has announced that it will make no demand.

The action of the senate on the Hay-Pauncefote treaty regarding the isthmian canal was something of a surprise both to the advocates and opponents of that much-discussed instrument. Contrary to expectation, the treaty was ratified, and by a large vote, but not until after three amendments had been forced upon the senate by the powerful sentiment for a so-called all-American canal. The effect of the amendments is to destroy the original character of the agreement and to convert it into something radically different. The chief of the three amendments is that urged by the late Senator Davis. It follows the fifth section of the second article of the treaty, and reads as follows:

"It is agreed, however, that none of the immediately foregoing conditions and stipulations in sections numbered 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 of this article shall apply to measures which the United States may find it necessary to take for securing by its own forces the defense of the United States and the maintenance of public order."

All the sections thus qualified were intended to insure the absolute neutrality of the canal at all times,—the right of an enemy of the United States to enter and use the waterway on equal terms with friendly nations. The construction put upon this amendment is fatal to the whole principle of neutrality. Under it, it was asserted in the senate, the United States is entitled to declare the canal



THE POWERS.—Open your mouth and shut your eyes and we'll give you something to make you wise.
—Minneapolis Journal.

closed to a hostile power and to make it part of its sea-coast line. It is explained that the amendment copies the exact phraseology of a clause in the treaty of Constantinople in relation to Suez, and that it gives Great Britain no more than Turkey (or, at present, Great Britain, the *real* ruler of Egypt) secured at the time of the neutralization of Suez. The conditions are, however, by no means similar. The Suez canal is wholly in Turkish territory, while the projected Nicaragua canal would *not* be in territory subject to the complete sovereignty of the United States. Be this as it may, this 'Davis amendment wipes out the substance of the five sections that precede it, and provides, not for a neutral canal, but for one open to all in times of peace, but "all-American" in time of war between this country and any other power.

Another of the three amendments provides for the abrogation of all the provisions of the old Clayton-Bulwer convention which were not directly and necessarily superseded by the new treaty. Finally, the third amendment strikes out the clause requiring the contracting parties to lay the treaty before the other civilized powers and to secure their adhesion thereto. The assent of the other powers, it is asserted, is not only superfluous but mischievous, for it implies the recognition of a right or interest on their part in the canal where none exists or — under the Monroe doctrine — can exist.

The question now presents itself, Will the

government of Great Britain accept this entirely different instrument? Will it acquiesce in the abrogation of the old convention, by which earlier British statesmen set great store, and will it be prepared to sanction the construction of a canal that will give the United States exclusive military advantages (or supposed advantages, since this point is vigorously contested)? The thoroughly revised treaty leaves Great Britain no rights in the canal and offers no *quid pro quo* for the surrender by her of the benefits she enjoyed under the Clayton-Bulwer agreement. The treaty still forbids us to fortify the canal, but the value of this restriction to Great Britain is slight, if not *nil*. Opinions differ as to the probable position of the Salisbury cabinet, but the British press appears to believe that the treaty in its new form will be declared one-sided and unacceptable. In that case, we are told, it will be the duty and prerogative of the senate to pass a resolution declaring the Clayton-Bulwer convention terminated. To that, however, there may be considerable opposition, for by its terms the convention is perpetual.



The French ministry, after months of agitation, has succeeded in passing the amnesty bill intended to mark the final appeasement of France and the winding up of the Dreyfus "affair." The amnesty act suspends all civil and criminal prosecutions growing out of the long and furious struggle over the rehabilitation of Dreyfus. Those who are believed to be the real traitors, as well as the abettors of treason, the forgers and false witnesses who brought about the two condemnations of the unfortunate Jewish captain, cannot be tried or punished for their crimes. On the other hand, the heroic champions of truth, the gallant Colonel Picquart among them, are to be deprived of the opportunity of suing their malicious libelers and defamers. Whether Dreyfus himself will be able to secure another revision of his case by the court of cassation, is not definitely known. Some authorities believe that if a "new fact" is ever brought to light tending to invalidate the verdict of the Rennes court martial, Dreyfus will have the legal right, notwithstanding the amnesty law, to demand a retrial; but this is denied by equally authoritative French lawyers. Emile Zola, the novelist whose "J'Accuse" compelled the second trial and pardon of Dreyfus, has made an eloquent and impassioned protest against the amnesty, but M.



LORD SALISBURY.—“As a piece of American humor this treaty isn't so bad.” —*Chicago Record.*

Waldeck-Rousseau and his colleagues have paid no heed to the protests of the "intellectuals." They have proceeded upon the principle that the safety of the state is paramount, and that since life and property are taken for the good of the body politic, the



CHARLES S. FRANCIS,
New United States Minister
to Greece.

sacrifice of honor and reputation may likewise be demanded of loyal citizens. They believe that the enemies of the republic — Nationalists, Anti-Semites, Royalists, etc. — would find their occupation and influence gone if the "affair" were finally buried. The army is still restive and disaffected, and Senecal André, the minister of war, has had to discipline a large number of officers for

seditious acts or utterances. The effect of the amnesty law may be salutary, but to many this appears doubtful. The amnesty, by the way, extends to many offenders under sentence for violence in connection with strikes, political demonstrations, and other unlawful disturbances. It does not, however, apply to Deroulede and the other agitators who were tried several months ago by the senate and convicted of treason. As they and their associates have not abandoned their revolutionary conspiracy against the republic, they were deliberately excluded from the benefits of the amnesty.



The island of Crete, as a glance at the map will show, is the most conspicuous of those natural stepping-stones which lie in the eastern end of the Mediterranean, and which perhaps accommodated the civilization of Asia and Egypt in its passage to Europe. Only sixty miles of water separate the island from the southern extremity of Greece; its easternmost point is but a daylight sail from Asia Minor. The island contributed largely to the history of the Greek lands and peoples. It was ancient when Homer sang of its "sea power," and the Cretans claimed that Zeus himself, if not all the Olympians, were born among its craggy mountains. Their earliest king, Minos, was the center of a cycle of myths. He was the son of Zeus. The Minotaur was his, and the Labyrinth was con-

structed by his orders. His code of laws came straight from heaven, and in time he came to be reckoned as the earliest of Grecian lawgivers. A later development of the myth gave him employment after death as one of the judges in the under-world of departed spirits. The land in which these traditions originated has long exercised a fascination over archæologists, but the presence of the Turk has until very recently proved a bar to any systematic excavation of the most promising sites. But political revolutions open doors to science as well as to commerce, and the last Cretan insurrection, which drove out the Turks, brought in the scientific excavator with his spade and note-book. Mr. A. J. Evans, an Englishman, who had been amusingly persistent for years in his attempts to upturn the soil of Crete, has for a year enjoyed freedom in his digging with exceedingly interesting and important results. He has found engraved seals bearing characters, yet undeciphered, which seem to antedate the oldest writings hitherto known. He has laid bare the smoke-stained stones of a palace older than Solomon's. In it is a royal council chamber in which are the king's massive throne and the stone benches of his wise men. Connected with the ruins of this palace may be readily traced a series of rooms and passages, arranged upon an ingenious and intricate plan, all of which suggests to Mr. Evans that his find is none other than the world-famous Labyrinth which the clever Dædalus made for King Minos. If this plausible assumption is true, it is no wonder that the discoverer identifies the gypsum throne as the royal seat of Minos himself. If Mr. Evans keeps on at this rate his name will have to be bracketed with that of Schliemann, but really his initial discoveries have been so amazing that he can hardly hope to cap the climax unless he ships to the British Museum the articulated skeleton of the Minotaur!



Among the most interesting relics of Greek antiquity are the graceful statuettes of terra-cotta which have been unearthed in many Boeotian tombs. So many of them came from one locality that the entire class is now well known by its name. These "Tanagra figurines" usually represent single draped figures of women or children. Apart from the ease and lifelikeness of the pose, they have been prized by the student of historical costume for the light which they were supposed to throw upon the subject of dress,

coiffure, etc. Indeed, we have heard them spoken of as Greek fashion-plates, and some have ventured to wonder how the lady of the period would look if reproduced in miniature in realistic terra-cotta and buried for twenty centuries. Examples of the Tanagra figurines have been given places of honor in the museums of the world. Probably no American museum possessed so striking a collection as that which the late Thomas Appleton presented to the Museum of Fine Arts in Boston, and which was known by the name of that connoisseur. The pieces were notable for their variety and grace, and were thought to be a revelation of Greek manners and apparel. Recent developments, however, have thrown discredit upon them, and the director has withdrawn them from exhibition. It is admitted that some of the supposed antiques are the most impudent modern fabrications. In some instances an entire statuette has been built up about an insignificant fragment of antiquity. In others the invention is quite baseless. Writers and students who have built up theories of Greek costume upon the evidence from Tanagra may find it necessary to revise some of their conclusions when the director decides how much of genuine archaeology was contained in that once conspicuous case of ebony and plate-glass.

The "anti-imperialist" movement has gained fresh vitality since the elections. Eminent men who voted for President

McKinley as a protest against the economic and political views of Mr. Bryan are now circulating a petition asking congress to pass a resolution pledging independence to the Filipinos. Distinguished Republicans, including ex-President Harrison and Congressman McCall of Massachusetts, have publicly and strongly declared their opposition to the administration's Philippine policy and have espoused the doctrine that the constitution accompanies the flag and extends automatically, *et proprio vigore*, to newly acquired or annexed territory. An address by ex-President Harrison to the students of the University of Michigan, in which colonial and congressional absolutism over territory of the United States were vigorously denounced as un-American, as the offspring of commercialism run mad, has challenged national attention.

Meantime the great question has been argued before, and submitted to, the federal supreme court, though, technically speaking, the only issue presented was the validity of the tariff regulations imposed by the executive, since the conclusion of peace with Spain, on Porto Rico and the Philippines. The federal tribunal is not called upon to decide whether the whole constitution is in force in the new possessions, but only whether that clause which requires that "all duties, imposts and excises shall be uniform *throughout the United States*" covers territory, organized and unorganized. Attorney-General Griggs, representing the government, contended in a long and able argument that the term "the United States," as used in the taxation clause, includes only the states and such organized territory as congress chooses to make an integral part of the union. The counsel on the other side argued — and cited decisions tending to show — that by "the United States" in the above clause, the constitution means the whole territory subject to American sovereignty and under the flag of the United States. In one early case Chief-Justice Marshall and the whole court held that uniformity of duties and taxes is as necessary in the territories as in the states and that what was the territory of the United States was an integral part of the republic. In the Dred Scott case the supreme court declared that the power to establish colonies and govern them arbitrarily was not conferred upon the government by the constitution and cannot lawfully be exercised. It is believed, even by stanch Republican papers, that the court will declare the Porto Rican and Philippine tariffs contrary to the constitution and *ultra vires*, but



"THINGS ARE NOT LIKE THEY USED TO BE."
— *Cleveland Plain Dealer*.

speculation upon the probable decision is somewhat unsafe.

However, apart from the constitutional aspect of the question of colonialism, it is earnestly contended that if the United States cannot follow the traditional American



ROBERT W. WILCOX,
Hawaiian delegate to
Congress.

policy and incorporate the new possessions as Louisiana, Florida, and other territories were incorporated, the only right and consistent alternative is the recognition of the right of the new possessions to independence and complete self-government. Thus, even a decision upholding the power of congress to govern the new territory outside of the constitutional

limitations would not settle the question of imperialism or colonialism. What is legal is not necessarily right, wise or safe. The supreme court is the final interpreter of the constitution, but the people themselves decide the higher issues of justice and national morality.

The proposed increase of our standing army to one hundred thousand men, and the employment of the greater part of this force in maintaining order in our insular possessions,—a procedure which, in the Philippines, involves serious warfare,—and the present participation of our troops in the occupation of Peking, are facts which give pertinency to an exhibit recently made, relative to our pension system. It seems incredible that our government pays to its pensioners twenty-four per cent of its total receipts; yet that appears to be the case, and the percentage is likely to be still greater. It is thirty-five years since the civil war closed, yet the government is contributing to the support of about as large a number of persons as there were soldiers in the field at any time during the war. One would naturally suppose that the number of pensioners would steadily decrease after so great a lapse of time. The records show, however, that there are now on the rolls 993,529 pensioners, an increase of 2,010 in one year. But this increase does not fairly represent the situation, for there are still 437,104 persons clamoring for enrol-

ment. During the last fiscal year 40,645 applications were granted, 4,699 names were restored to the list, and 43,334 pensions expired for various causes. During the last thirty-five years the government has distributed \$2,612,329,690 in pensions. A yearly average of over 74,000,000. The expenditure for this purpose last year amounted to \$138,412,172, which was \$107,000 in excess of the previous year, but considerably less than that of 1893, when the total reached \$156,806,537, the largest amount for any one year.

A fascinating interest attaches to accounts of surveys of the bottom of the sea. Reports of the work of government hydrographers in determining the best cable routes under the Pacific, appearing in the press, state that greater submarine abysses and corresponding higher mountain peaks have been discovered than were known to the world previous to these soundings. We quote from the *Chicago Record*:

Previous surveys had demonstrated the feasibility of a cable route from San Francisco to the island of Oahu, in the Hawaiian group, and from Santa Barbara to Honolulu. The route just charted by the hydrographers of the expedition in command of Lieutenant-Commander H. M. Hodges is from Honolulu to the Midway Islands, to Guam, and from there to the Philippines and to Yokohama.

Between Honolulu and the Midway Islands the bottom of the ocean was found to be an almost level plain of soft mud at an average depth of 2,700 fathoms, and, according to Rear-Admiral Bradford, an ideal route for cable-laying. It was found necessary to deviate from a straight line from the Midway Islands to Guam in order to avoid the great depths.

An abyss—the deepest ever found—was encoun-



THE CONSTITUTION.—“Oh, I guess I’ll wait a while and think it over.”
—*Minneapolis Tribune*.

tered about sixty miles east of Guam, bottom being reached only after 5,269 fathoms or 31,614 feet of wire had been run out. Another sounding was taken in 5,070 fathoms of water. At a depth of 5,101 fathoms the temperature was found to be 36 degrees above zero Fahrenheit. The abyss was named the Nero deep.

For 1,000 knots from the Midways toward Guam the bottom was almost level, with the exception of one peak, which rose to within eighty-two fathoms of the surface. The practicable cable route was found to lie north of Nero deep. It is believed that still greater ocean depths may be found south of the soundings east of Guam.

Running from Guam to the Philippines the bottom was found to be less regular than east of Guam, the surface being undulating at depths of from 1,400 to 2,700 fathoms for 600 knots. Then a mountain range was found, from the crest of which there was a gradual slope to a depth of about 3,500 fathoms, after which until the Luzon coast was reached, the bottom was nearly level. This stretch is described as insuring long life to cables, as the bottom is covered with soft mud.

The route from Guam north to Yokohama was found to lie west of the Ladronez and east of the Bonin Islands. The bottom for a distance of 5,000 knots from Guam is described as a level plain at a depth of 2,100 fathoms. Then a submarine mountain range was found, one peak of which came within 483 fathoms of the surface, and which was determined to be similar in altitude and contour to the volcano of Fujiyama, near Yokohama, which is 12,430 feet high.

After considerable difficulty a feasible pass across this range was found. This newly found mountain range is said by the experts of the expedition to connect the range running from the west coast of Japan to the Bonin Islands with the one of the Ladronez.



Under the caption "An Unwise Spelling Reform," Mr. Lawrence B. Fletcher sends the following interesting observations:

"The acquisition of Puerto Rico, and the adoption of the spelling here used in the name of that island have aroused public attention to the existence of an institution of our government which is called the Board of Geographic Names. From a newspaper account of the functions of this board, I learn that its general policy is to adhere to local usage but that it does not so adhere in certain cases, two of which are especially interesting. The board decrees the elision of the final 'h' in names ending in 'burgh,' and of the final 'ugh' in names ending in 'borough.' The reason for making these changes is not at all apparent. It is true that a trifling abbreviation is thereby gained, but the instance of Puerto Rico shows that abbreviation is not a paramount consideration. It is true, also, that careless and hasty writers have long made the elisions in question, with or without the explanatory apostrophe, and that these curtailments, in some instances, have received general local sanction. But the calm, judicial mind of a government board might reasonably be supposed immune to the infection of such evil

example. In places where the shortened forms have not been adopted by the people or by the local authorities, the spoliation of the names is resented and strenuously resisted. For people in general take pride in local names, as they do in family names, and jealously guard every letter of them. To this amiable human weakness the retention of the many uncouth, foreign and ridiculous names that deface our maps must be attributed. Here are a few such names, most of them from New York and Pennsylvania:



FREDERICO DEGETAU.
Porto Rican delegate to Congress.

"Mattawamkeag, Natchitoches, Mariadahl, L'Erabl, Hypoluxo, Withlachoochee, Deakynerville, Love's Cross Roads, Yreka, You Bet, Yeoho, Conocochegue, Prairie du Chien, Little Prairie Ronde, Caughdenoy, Footprints, Grand View on Hudson, Horae Heads, Mettacahouts, Number Four, Schaghticoke, Shinhopple, Painted Post, Stone Arabia, Applebachsville, Cornpropet's Mills, Dreilbhis, Eighty-four, Foot of Plane, Forty Fort, General Wayne, Irish Ripple, Kishacoquillas, King of Prussia, Intercourse, Lovely, McSherrystown, Nether Providence, Pit Hole City, Rough and Ready, Rush Four Corners, Sabbath Rest, Shickshinny, Shintown, Slab, Spry, Stouchaburgh, Talley Cavey, Tub, Two Taverns, Uwchland, Walkchalk and Wapwallopen.

"All of these were names of post-offices at the last census, according to Rand & McNally's Atlas. It would seem, therefore, that a reforming board might have found ample material to work upon without falling foul of the harmless and necessary burghs and boroughs. For it should be particularly noted that these are not only parts of names but good old English common nouns [sic!] Burg is German, and 'boro' bears on its mutilated countenance no trace of relationship to any Teutonic tongue. At the very time when these alleged reforms are made, the metropolis of the country has adopted the word borough as the official designation of its component parts. Who would think of writing 'boro' in this connection? And if it were written in the plural, 'boros,' how many readers would know what was meant? As we do not curtail the title of the Duke of Marlborough, it seems rather absurd to clip the names of the dozen American places named in his honor.

"The singular anomaly is presented of a

government which has always declined to interfere in the affairs of the independent republic of letters selecting for improvement the very geographic names which are formed from words of common speech, yet giving its tacit approval to the worse than superfluous gutturals of



ARTHUR S. HARDY.
New United States Minister
to Switzerland.

many of our barbarous Indian names. The 'ugh' in Poughquay is as unnecessary as the 'ugh' in Southborough. It is true that no one is compelled to use the clipped forms, but these have been adopted by the post-office, and that adoption, in some instances, has led to deplorable confusion and uncertainty.

In the particular borough (Marlborough, New York) with which the writer is most familiar, the short form is used by the post-office, the long form by the railroad and the local press. Once a newspaper adopted the short form in its heading, but the publisher soon found it expedient to defer to public opinion and restored the missing letters."

The question of congressional reapportionment under the late census, now before the national house, bristles with difficulties. Shall the ratio be changed and the number of representatives be left as it stands, or shall the house be enlarged and the ratio be preserved or but slightly altered? In the early days of the republic a member of congress represented only 30,000 population, but the phenomenal growth of the population has made it impossible to maintain that standard. The house of representatives has steadily grown and is now admittedly unwieldy, but there are objections to increasing the number represented by each member that outweigh the considerations on the other side.

The latest reapportionment, made in 1893, fixed the ratio at 173,901 and increased the membership of the house from 325 to 357. The new enumeration of the population necessitates the adoption of a new ratio, if the membership is to remain the same. The census committee has reported a bill, introduced by Congressman Hopkins of Illinois, placing the ratio at 208,868. The result

of this would be that Indiana, Kansas, Kentucky, Maine, Nebraska, Ohio, South Carolina and Virginia would lose one representative each, while Illinois, Louisiana, Minnesota, New Jersey, New York and West Virginia would gain one member each, Texas being the only state that would gain two congressmen. As no state wants to lose representation, the Hopkins bill is being vigorously opposed. There are alternative propositions under discussion, one fixing the ratio at 192,676, with 387 members, and another increasing the membership to 377, with a ratio of 197,787.

Incidentally the serious question has arisen as to whether those southern states which have disfranchised their colored citizens should not be punished by having their representation reduced specially in accordance with the fourteenth amendment to the constitution. A bill providing for such punitive action has been introduced by Congressman Crumpacker of Indiana, and approved by leading Republican newspapers. The general belief, however, is that the south will be "left alone" and that the fourteenth amendment, in so far as it *directs* reduction of representation in case of disfranchisement, will remain a dead letter. Political reasons militate against the proposed action, it being regarded as certain that sectionalism would be revived. There are, it must be admitted, other and better reasons for "going slow" in the matter of punishing the commonwealths guilty of discrimination.

There has been much earnest discussion of the new southern problem presented by the wholesale disfranchisement of the colored citizens in Louisiana, the Carolinas, and other ex-slave states, by laws plainly obnoxious to the spirit, if not the letter, of the fifteenth amendment, which provides that "the right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or any state on account of race, color or previous condition of servitude." An educational qualification which is applied to colored citizens alone and from which white illiterates are exempted by a "grandfather clause" is clearly indefensible on constitutional grounds. Of course the supreme court may take a broad view of the question and, despite its extreme disinclination to interfere in state affairs, especially in such as involve the delicate and difficult race question, pronounce the suffrage amendment adopted by the states named above null and void. That would be the simplest solu-

tion. But what if the supreme court decides that the anti-negro amendment is not inconsistent with the *terms* of the federal suffrage guaranties? The control of congressional elections by the federal congress ("force bill" methods) no one now proposes. Even the Republican statesmen who were most prominent in the anti-southern agitation of the early nineties now acknowledge that in the interest of national unity and solidarity the south must be allowed to work out its salvation and solve its peculiar problems. Yet what has been aptly characterized as the "new nullification" (intentional evasion of the fifteenth amendment) is not likely to be acquiesced in by the north without protest.

But what is to be done? The southern Democrats do not hesitate to declare that the disfranchisement of the illiterate blacks is imperative, and some of them suggest the repeal of the fifteenth amendment. Would the north vote for repeal? If not, what is the remedy? Certain writers have pointed to the second section of the fourteenth amendment as providing, if not a remedy, then, at least, a penalty and deterrent. That section declares that in the case of denial or abridgement of suffrage by any state "the basis of representation shall be reduced [by congress] in the proportion which the number of such male citizens [as shall have been deprived of the right to vote] shall bear to the whole number of male

citizens twenty-one years of age in such state." There are now forty representatives in congress based upon the colored population, and after the next apportionment the number will be increased to fifty. If the second section of the fourteenth amendment were to be enforced, the south would lose these representatives. It would, of course, strenuously oppose the reduction. But is it right, and

decreased through tests applicable to white and blacks like; "but where the reduction is not at all of white votes, but of black votes only, the fourteenth amendment does not apply. The fifteenth," he continues, "forbids that kind of a reduction. It says color discriminations shall not exist, and congress is authorized to enforce the prohibition. It cannot acquiesce in the crime and seek for a partial compensation by reducing representation under the fourteenth amendment, which is obsolete in such a case." Is there any other solution? Senator Chandler confesses that he sees none.



GENERAL ISAAC KAHN,
Envoy Extraordinary and
Minister Plenipotentiary
from Persia to the
United States.



JOHN C. A. LEISCHMANN,
New United States Minister
to Turkey.

would it be expedient for the north to insist upon applying this penalty?

Senator Chandler, of New Hampshire, ably argues against this proposition. He affirms, and with manifest truth, that the reduction of representation is proper where voters are

The convention of the American Federation of Labor was noteworthy on account of the conflict between the conservative members and the radical wing of of the organization. The federation had to define its attitude on these three questions: Compulsory arbitration, trusts, and socialism. President Gompers took strong ground against state interference in labor disputes and any introduction of legal compulsion in the relations between capital and labor, and the convention approved his position. An unequivocal condemnation of trusts was offered and defeated, and a substitute resolution was adopted "urging the unorganized working people to organize in their respective trades as the best means of resisting the encroachments of trusts and monopolies," and also renewing the recommendation that workingmen generally study the development of trusts and monopolies. It has been clear for some time, in fact, that the powerful labor organizations have but little sympathy with the anti-trust movement. They believe that drastic legislation against combinations of capital would inevitably react upon combinations of labor. They also appear to think that it will be easier to deal with and extort concessions from well-managed consolidated corporations than from weak, struggling employers of labor.

Definite and decisive was the rejection of several socialistic resolutions in favor of the

following declarations of the federation:

"The aspirations, hopes and aims of the trades union members are very similar to the expressed wishes of the greater body of socialists; namely, that the burdens of toil may be made lighter, and that each worker shall enjoy the complete benefit of that which he produces. That men and women shall receive a great amount of



J. B. PIODA,
Envoy Extraordinary and
Minister Plenipotentiary
from Switzerland to
the United States.

liberty; that the years to come may be made brighter than the past or present, are the ideals of us all. But we take the position, nevertheless, that because of personal, local, national, or other reasons the workers of our country reach different conclusions as to the method of reaching the desired end, even though there may be little difference among us as to the desirability of reaching that end. We assert as forcibly as we are capable of asserting that the trade union movement is the true and legitimate channel through which the toilers should seek not only present amelioration but future emancipation."

This reverses a profession of faith made by the same body at a convention held in Denver a few years ago. But, while socialism, especially of the unconscious sort, is rapidly gaining ground, among the leaders and officers of American unions, there is just now a pronounced disposition to emphasize the practical side, the moderation, the "reasonableness" of the labor movement.

In connection with this convention of the American Federation of Labor it is interesting to mark the results of a national conference on conciliation and arbitration between capital and labor held at Chicago in the third week of last month under the auspices of the Civic Federation, which had already conducted several successful conferences of the same character. Employers, labor representatives, superintendents of large enterprises, reformers, and economists participated in the proceedings, and many valuable papers were read. Compulsory arbitration was advocated and earnestly defended by the distinguished New Zealand legislator, Hugh H. Lusk, "the father of the compulsory arbitration law" of the antipodean colony often called "the home of sociological experiments." A sharp passage at arms occurred between Mr. Lusk and Mr. Gompers, the latter asserting the unlimited liberty of striking (recognized by law and courts, by

the way), the former affirming that such liberty means license and industrial anarchy.

However, in the resolutions unanimously adopted by the conference at the end of its labors, it was affirmed that compulsory arbitration, aside from all other objections, could not be considered *at this time* as a question of practical industrial reform. At the same time it was recognized that the voluntary arbitration now in vogue was partial, limited, and spasmodic, and that the situation demanded more effective efforts toward the maintenance of peace and the prevention of lockouts, strikes, and the disorder too often attendant upon such troubles. The recommendations made by the conference are based upon the belief that the true interests of labor and of capital are at bottom harmonious, and that good will and a sincere desire to eliminate strife would solve the labor problem. They involve nothing more than the systematic and general application of means already abundantly tried and found efficacious. First, it is urged that employers and wage-workers should meet annually or semi-annually and enter into agreements regarding wages, hours of labor, apprentices, and all other subjects which give rise to differences. Secondly, it is recommended that the various industries should establish permanent boards of conciliation, to which such disputes might be referred as do not permit of ready adjustment between the interests immediately concerned. A committee of twelve was appointed by the chairman of the conference to promote the program thus outlined and induce each trade or industry to follow the example of those interests which have had recourse to conciliation, annual meetings, and trade arbitration. The committee is an able and representative body of men—it is equally divided between representatives of capital and labor officers—and at the end of a year it is to make a report to another national conference. So many leading trades have practised the methods suggested by the conference that a fair measure of success may be confidently predicted for the committee.

One remarkable feature of the conference was the agreement of the speakers that the state arbitration boards had proved comparatively useless and that hope of better conditions lies in "trade arbitration," without the intervention of commissioners, officials, and other "outsiders." That the public is a party to every industrial controversy is acknowledged, but the claim is that its interests are best subserved by the exer-

cise of moral suasion. The lesson really taught by the failure of state boards of conciliation and arbitration is that a mild and halting form of legal intervention is little better than non-interference, and that we must intelligently and deliberately choose between completely voluntary "trade arbitration" and compulsory arbitration after the New Zealand plan.

The difference between the American and the Australian view of the industrial contract could hardly be more strikingly exemplified than by the decision rendered a few days after the adjournment of the arbitration convention at Chicago by the supreme court of Illinois. The case was that of an employer who had discharged a workman for joining a trades union, and had been fined under a statute passed several years ago for the specific purpose of "protecting" organized workmen and guaranteeing their right to belong to labor organizations. The supreme court declared the act void and contrary to the liberty clause of the state constitution. No man, it said, can be deprived of his liberty or property without due process of law, and the rights of liberty and property include the right to make and terminate contracts at will. This right is accorded by the constitution alike to the employer and to the laborer. The employer may not be prohibited from hiring and dismissing men when and as he pleases, and the legislature has no power to interfere with him or inquire into his reasons for entering

into or dissolving a contract. Similarly, the workman is at liberty to quit his employer when he pleases, with or without reason, and the state may not call him to account for his exercise of this personal right.

It will be seen that the Illinois supreme court fully sustains the assertion of President Gompers of the American Federation of Labor that the workman has the unlimited right of striking, applying the correlative doctrine to employers and recognizing their unlimited right of discharge. Society or the state is thus denied any sort of jurisdiction in the premises — except that the constitutional guaranty of liberty and property

is supposed to be socially beneficial and to embody the condition of general welfare and progress. The Australian view, as illustrated by the compulsory arbitration law especially, is that the right to strike is limited by the interest of society, and that the latter may intervene at any time, inquire into the cause of a strike or lockout, and, declaring it inadequate, order the resumption of work.



STEPHEN J. PAUL KRUGER.

(From a photograph recently taken in Paris.)



ADVANCE OR RETREAT—WHICH ?

If you are a Boer sympathizer revolve the picture to the left. If you believe in the British cause, turn it to the right.

—*Minneapolis Journal.*

Benjamin Franklin, who was born in Boston in 1706 and lived there until, in his seventeenth year, he went to New York and Philadelphia seeking employment as a printer, had a provision in his will which has caused a good deal of interest and some contention in his native city. This provision bequeathed one thousand pounds to a board of trustees composed of the selectmen of Boston, and the ministers of the oldest Episcopal, Congregational, and Presbyterian churches, "for the encouragement of young mechanics." This money was to be loaned at five per cent interest in sums of "not more than sixty pounds or less than sixteen pounds to young married artificers under the age of twenty-five, who have faithfully served apprenticeship in Boston, so as to obtain a certificate of good moral character from at least two respectable citizens who are willing to become their sureties in a bond for the payment of the money." The will

likewise provided that, at the end of one hundred years, by which time Franklin estimated the fund would have increased to one hundred and thirty-one thousand pounds, the trustees should "lay out at their discretion one hundred thousand pounds in public works which may be judged of most general utility to the inhabitants, such as fortifications, public buildings, aqueducts, baths, pavements, or whatever may make living in the town more convenient to its people and render it more agreeable to strangers resorting thither for health or for a temporary residence." The balance was to be reinvested for another hundred years.

The trustees soon found that Franklin's scheme of making small loans to young married artificers was impracticable. The loans were withdrawn, and the money invested in the ordinary way, but not always at five per cent. Now, at the beginning of the twentieth century, one hundred and eleven years after Franklin's death, Boston finds itself with a fund of three hundred and ninety thousand dollars on its hands, and the question has repeatedly arisen as to its proper disposition in view of the peculiar provisions of Franklin's will. Ever since the money became available, projects of various sorts have been suggested. In view of Franklin's evident kindness toward young mechanics, it was thought that the endowment of a trade school would meet all the requirements, but the project was abandoned because of opposition from the labor unions. At last it has been practically decided to put the money into a workingman's institute, to be known, appropriately enough, as the Franklin Institute, and to locate the building in either Franklin square or on the site of the old Franklin schoolhouse. Both of these sites are in Boston's south end, a section once devoted to fashion and the dwellings of the patricians, but now passing into the possession of foreigners, mostly Italians and Irish.

That Boston — or any other large city — presents an admirable field for such an institute needs no demonstration; and the establishment of the institute in a section of the city that has entirely lost its American character should not be a bar to the successful inauguration and development of the project, for no people in Boston need the advantages of the institute more than those who live in the south end.

It is proposed to conduct the institute on broad lines, as may be seen from the following definition of its purpose: "To promote

educational measures of two principal kinds; first, those looking to general education, by classes and lectures in history and political and social science, and second, those looking to theoretical and practical instruction in such of the applied arts and sciences as are best calculated to stimulate and widen the intelligence, cultivate the taste, enhance the skill and measure of efficiency of the people of Boston, special regard being given to those who are artisans." If the plans of the trustees are carried out, the name and fame of Benjamin Franklin will shine with greater luster than ever, and his life and work will become greater blessings to his fellow men.



An issue of the *Pennsylvania Gazette*, now the *Philadelphia North American*, bearing date during 1804, contains a letter from a correspondent who refers to the prevailing notion then extant that the Christian religion had about reached the end; that something must happen in a favorable direction, else such days of usefulness as it was supposed to have were numbered. There were, when this correspondent wrote, about 2,700 churches. This is a liberal estimate. There were 2,340 in 1801, and their value, all of them together, was hardly more than \$1,500,000. In 1901 there are 187,800 churches, and their value is \$724,900,000. There are in 1901 thirty-nine Episcopal parishes having larger annual incomes each, than the incomes of all Episcopal parishes in America in 1800. Presbyterian benevolences amounted to \$2,500 in 1800. Now they crowd \$4,000,000 a year. Brown University secured its name on a gift of \$5,000 — an amount so large that the whole Baptist denomination, and the whole country for that matter, did honor to the munificent donor. Baptist educational institutions in 1900 were worth \$45,000,000. There are a score of Methodist annual conferences that contain more ministers each than there were Methodist ministers in the whole country when the *Pennsylvania Gazette* correspondent wrote. There were 450 Lutheran churches in America in 1800. Now there are 10,908, an increase of twenty-five fold. Lutheran membership during the century increased eighty fold, or more than six times as fast as the population, and the population growth of America astonishes the world. Congregational home mission work began seventy-five years ago. There were then 150,000 Congregationalists. Now there are 629,874. There are five times as many children in

Roman Catholic schools today as there were members of all Roman Catholic churches one hundred years ago, and the 11,638 Catholic clergy of today are five times as many as there were ministers of all religious bodies at the beginning of the century. When the *Pennsylvania Gazette* man wrote there was not a missionary society in America. Now the missionary societies of America receive and spend \$25,000,000 a year.

It took \$287,000,000 to pay the running expenses of all the churches of the United States last year. It took \$8,991,000 to maintain the churches of New York city alone; \$4,771,000 those of Philadelphia, \$2,600,000 Chicago, \$2,219,000 Boston, and so on. These enormous figures do not include new structures, mission contributions, or general charities. It costs \$14,600,000 to maintain all Episcopal churches a year, \$20,375,000 all Presbyterian, \$12,348,000 all Baptist, \$26,267,000 all Methodist, \$31,185,000 all Roman Catholic, and \$7,250,000 to buy lesson papers, libraries, presents, etc., for all the Sunday-school scholars.

People who belong to the Church of England give \$37,300,000 a year in voluntary offerings, and the government, directly and indirectly, gives \$28,775,000 a year. The maintenance of the Free Churches of England comes to \$25,800,000 a year. The money voice of Christianity of 1901 is considerably above \$1,000,000,000 a year.

The church in all America having the largest annual income is St. Bartholomew's Episcopal, New York. Its income amounts to about \$200,000 a year; that of historic Trinity parish in the same city \$168,000. In New York, Boston and Philadelphia there are many Episcopal churches having annual incomes from \$50,000 to \$130,000 each a year. The largest Presbyterian church is the Brick, New York, with \$116,000 income, and the second largest is the Second, of Indianapolis, with \$85,000. The Fifth

Avenue, New York, of which the Rev. Dr. John Hall was so long pastor, has an income running from \$60,000 to \$75,000 a year. Chicago Presbyterian churches hardly reach \$50,000 a year, any of them. The largest Congregational church is the Old South, Boston, with \$55,000 income. Income of Methodist churches is small in comparison. The largest is that of the Madison Avenue, New York, \$39,000. The largest Baptist is the Fifth Avenue, New York, where the Rockefellers attend. Its income last year was \$145,000, but that was rather exceptional.

American people pay \$2,000,000 a year for Bibles, \$500,000 a year for hymn and tune books, \$60,000 a year for prayer books, and \$11,750,000 for religious periodicals and other Christian literature. Methodists North alone pay into their two Book Concerns in New York and Cincinnati over \$8,000,000 each four years, and since their establishment in 1848 have paid to them almost \$70,000,000.

These figures, compiled by Eugene M. Camp, are filed with the copy of the *Pennsylvania Gazette* which contains the correspondence referred to, in order that the searcher of 2001, whoever he may be, may have something interesting to write about; something tangible for striking comparisons.



DANIEL C. GILMAN,
New President of the National Civil Service Reform League.



END OF THE NINETEENTH LAP IN THE GREAT CENTURY
RELAY RACE.

—Cleveland Press.

There is forming an evangelistic committee which aims at a gospel campaign that shall cover the land, and labor as long as there are any unsaved people. It started in New York, with leaders in almost all evangelical bodies behind it, and committees as carefully made as in a political campaign are getting into working shape in many cities. There is no intention to hold mass meetings outside the churches. The movement is distinctively within the churches, and aims to awaken everybody and everything to larger conceptions of duty toward neighbors in carrying to them the message committed to the

churches by Jesus Christ. The Moody influence is with the movement, and the Rev. Campbell Morgan, who comes to America to become part of the Northfield Extension, will lend his aid. Before him, however, the Rev. F. B. Meyer is to arrive in March, fresh from the English campaign, and will visit American cities of the south and west. All elements are joining in this gospel movement, and at this writing it is gaining strength rapidly.

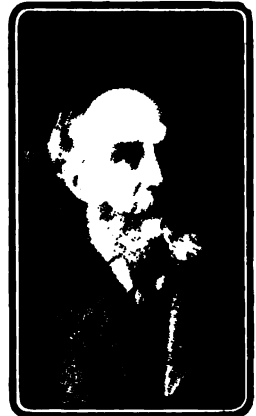
There is to grow out of the Ecumenical Conference on Foreign Missions, held last spring, a missionary information trust. As a combination it is not, however, likely to injure anybody. There are certain facts about missions which boards cannot collect as well as can outside agencies, and there are certain other facts about them that it is a waste of time and money to have collected by a score of agencies. The proposition is to form a society—the name is not yet selected—which will perform this common work for all boards and all religious periodicals; to form in this country, in short, a headquarters for missionary information that shall be as broad as the world and free to all who desire its material. A foundation for the organization has been laid in the zealous labors of the Rev. Dr. J. S. Dennis. An annual outlay of ten thousand dollars will be required. There will be a few sources of revenue, but contributions will be needed in part. It is purposed to have all missionary societies in the United States and Canada having work in foreign fields represented in its executive, but the organization will not be dependent upon these board officials for its initiative.

Baptists are making remarkable strides in eastern Cuba. The American Baptist Home Mission Society was the first to enter Santiago from the United States, and the first to plant in that city a considerable church and to cover eastern Cuba with a comprehensive missionary system. Recently there have been baptized into membership with these churches three of the best known and most influential men in eastern Cuba, and their uniting with it has given to Protestant effort there a standing which it never had before. Dr. Jose M. Cabrera was perhaps the ablest of the speakers in the Cuban party at Harvard last summer. He has now become an evangelist of the Baptist Home Mission Society, and will labor in eastern Cuba.

Western Cuba, including Matanzas and Havana, is being fostered in mission work by the Baptists of the South.

The committee on the revision of the Westminster Confession has now held two meetings and is to hold a third in Washington on the 12th of this month. The committee's finding is unanimous that some changes in the confession are desired by the Presbyterian body to which it belongs, and it has voted so to report to the General Assembly meeting in Philadelphia in May. The meeting next to be held is for the purpose of formulating that report.

By the death of Moses Coit Tyler, Chautauqua has lost an efficient councillor and an enthusiastic friend. He was greatly interested in Chautauqua's educational work from the first, and at the time of his death was a member of the Educational Council of the Chautauqua System of Popular Education. It will be remembered that Professor Tyler appeared at Chautauqua three times. During one Assembly season he spent three weeks as a regular instructor in the School of English Literature, and twice he gave courses of popular lectures for a week. In personal intercourse one seldom found a more enthusiastic advocate of the value of Chautauqua as an educational factor among the people. Mr. Tyler had been professor of history in Cornell University since 1881. From 1867 up to that date he had been a member of the faculty of the University of Michigan. He was a graduate of Yale, he entered the ministry at one time and served for a time as literary editor of *The Christian Union*. Among well-known publications from his hand may be mentioned "History of American Literature During the Colonial Time," "Manual of English Literature," "Literary History of the American Revolution," "Brawnville Papers," "Three Men of Letters," "Life of Patrick Henry," and "Glimpses of England." He died in his sixty-fifth year.



THE LATE
MOSES COIT TYLER.

GEOGRAPHY FROM HOMER TO COLUMBUS.

BY FREDERIC AUSTIN OGG.



GEOGRAPHICAL knowledge, from Homer to Columbus, is everywhere mingled with the wrecks of antiquated opinions, broken-down theories, and discarded systems. Among these ruins, as we view them from our vantage-point of time and superior opportunities, there appear many conceptions so crude as to provoke a smile. Yet that smile should be one of sympathy rather than of scorn; for beneath a sea of errors there flows a deep current of truth which commands the profoundest admiration of modern scholarship. Even the wildest and most fantastic ideas set forth by the ancients were the labored products of some man's best thought, and as such are worthy of respectful consideration.

The geography of Homer and of his age is involved in great obscurity. There are no sources of information except poetry; and so much early Greek literature is of uncertain date that it cannot be relied upon to convey an accurate idea of the geographical knowledge of the time. The best evidence indicates that the Greeks of Homer's time believed the earth to be a flat, round disk floating in the ocean. The inclination of the earth's surface toward the sun was accounted for by supposing the disk to be less submerged on its southern than on its northern side. Near the center of this disk were located the lands of civilization—Egypt, Greece, and Phœnicia—collected about the Mediterranean sea. The *Ægean* was the focus of the earth. Beyond it the world was ever less distinctly known until it ended in "an horizon of pure ignorance." The border was girdled by the deep-flowing river Oceanus in which were located Elysium, Ethiopia, the Fortunate Isles, and the land of the Hyperboreans. Beyond Oceanus was a *terra incognita*—the realm of dust and darkness and spirits of the dead. Somewhere in these border regions the hemisphere of Heaven joined the hemisphere of Tartarus or the under world; for the plane earth was supposed to cut the great cosmic sphere squarely into halves and to shut out all light from Tartarus. Herodotus and the philosopher Anaxagoras differed from contemporary opinion by holding that the circumfluent Oceanus was merely a Homeric myth, and that the

disk of earth really terminated in empty space.

The origin of the idea that the earth is spherical has not been determined. The Homeric age was certainly not responsible for it. Ignorance of the earth's shape is betrayed by the prevalent idea that the rising sun appeared much larger to the people of India than to the Grecians, and that the setting sun presented the same phenomenon in Spain. For example, Ctesias in the fifth century B. C. asserts that the rising sun appeared ten times as large in India as in Greece. Of course the explanation offered for this disparity was that India lay near the edge of the disk around which the sun pursued his circular course, and so was much nearer the rising luminary than was Greece, which was centrally located. Revolve about a plate a marble in a plane at right angles to the flat surface of the plate, and you will have the substance of this primitive theory.

We know that the sphericity of the earth was taught by the Pythagoreans in the sixth century B. C.; and the doctrine was probably included in Pythagoras's own teaching, as it was a little later in that of Parmenides, the founder of the Eleatics. Pythagoras left no writings, but Diogenes Laertius quotes an authority to the effect that Pythagoras asserted the earth to be spherical and fully inhabited, so that there were *antipodes* "to whom that is overhead which to us is underfoot." As has been frequently pointed out, however, the enunciation of this theory can constitute no claim to scientific acumen. The earth was regarded as a sphere because the sphere is the most perfect geometrical figure; it was at the center of the universe because that is the position of honor; it was held to be motionless because motion is less dignified than rest. Belief in the sphericity of the earth did not displace the idea of a circumfluent ocean on which men were already beginning to conceive it would be possible to sail from shore to shore by two diametrically opposite routes. It is worthy of note that this theory of circumnavigation, first advanced by the Greeks, was never wholly lost to view, although the navigator who was to put it to the supreme test was not born for almost a score of centuries. Plato and Aristotle adopted

the Pythagorean view of the form of the earth and did much to make it popular. The latter, in his treatise "De Caelo," cites three distinct grounds upon which was based the theory of the earth's sphericity: (1) the tendency of all things to seek the center, (2) the unvarying circularity of the earth's shadow at eclipses of the moon, (3) the proportionate change in the altitude of the stars resulting from change in the observer's latitude. Beyond these facts the science of today cannot go, except that it has added the conclusive proof which comes from circumnavigation. In spite of the manifest soundness of Aristotle's propositions and the practical unanimity with which the best thinkers accepted them, it is improbable that the doctrine became widespread among the people in either classical or medieval times.

Although Plato gives no estimate of the size of the earth, he seems to imply that it was of immense dimensions. In "Phædo" he likens the nations settled around the Mediterranean to "ants or frogs dwelling on the margin of a pool." This conception was disputed by Aristotle who regarded the earth as a very small and insignificant portion of the universe. The calculation of the real size of the earth was a very slow and difficult process, but at the same time an exceedingly important factor in the evolution of western discovery. Aristotle states that the mathematicians of his day (fourth century B. C.) estimated the earth's circumference at four hundred thousand stadia. Archimedes (born about 287 B. C.) puts the current reckoning at three hundred thousand stadia. How these figures were obtained we do not know, nor can we ascertain their English equivalents; for, though the Greek stadium is known to have comprised six hundred feet, yet the length of a Greek foot is uncertain because of a peculiar system of double standards, the Olympic and the Attic. The first measurement of the earth based upon methods now understood was made about the middle of the third century B. C. by Eratosthenes, the librarian at Alexandria. By comparing with the angular distance the linear distance between Syene—a city under the tropic—and Alexandria, he computed the earth's circumference to be about 250,000 stadia. It is generally agreed that Eratosthenes's figures were equivalent to 25,200 geographical miles—the correct measurement being 21,600 miles. Posidonius of Rhodes (B. C. 135–51) made a calculation which is reported by Cleomedes as 240,000 stadia and by Strabo as 180,000

stadia. The latter measurement (about 18,000 geographical miles) more nearly accords with views of Posidonius elsewhere expressed. This estimate, like that of Eratosthenes, surprises us by its approximation to accuracy.

Closely connected with these speculations was the all-important question as to the relative amount of land and water which would be encountered by one who should set out to travel around the globe. Aristotle had said that the two extremities of the great land system in the northern hemisphere might not be far apart, which was saying that the distance from Spain to India might be very short. Eratosthenes contended that, were it not for the immense extent of the Atlantic ocean, one might sail from Spain to India on the same parallel of latitude. He further expressed his views thus:

"Our *oikoumenê* (land area surrounding the Mediterranean) occupies about one-third of the earth's circumference. On the parallel of Athens the whole circumference is about 200,000 stadia, of which distance 70,000 stadia are occupied by the land stretching from Spain to India."

Measured a few degrees farther south this estimate would have been entirely correct. But the lack of certainty tempted geographers to propound new theories at pleasure; and, very naturally, the *hope* that the water expanse was not so great as to preclude circumnavigation led most writers to continue to increase the land at the expense of the sea. As we view it now, it was doubtless fortunate that men went farther and farther in this error since it prepared the way for the expedition of Columbus—an enterprise which certainly would not have been attempted at so early a date had the approximate correctness of Eratosthenes's figures been understood.

The next step in this process of "land projection" was taken by Posidonius who estimated the circumference in the latitude of Gibraltar at 14,000 geographical miles, and affirmed that the distance was covered half by water and half by land. Passing over many centuries we arrive at what must be considered by far the most important of all estimates upon this point, *i.e.*, that made by Toscanelli, an Italian geographer, a contemporary of Columbus. Toscanelli formed an estimate of the earth's circumference which was less than 124 English miles in excess of the true measurement. He affirmed the circumference in the latitude of Lisbon to be 19,500 miles, of which 13,000 miles, or two-thirds, represented the land distance

and the other 6,500 miles, or only one-third, the water to be crossed in passing from Spain to Cathay (China). Toscanelli thus elongated Asia by almost the entire width of the Atlantic ocean. Zaiton, the easternmost city in Toscanelli's China, would thus fall in Lower California, and the east coast of Cipango (Japan) would fall in the Gulf of Mexico. For this error, however, Toscanelli had numerous precedents among which perhaps the most notable was the calculation of Marinus of Tyre, a quaint geographer of the second century A. D. From the testimony of some silk traders who had traveled along caravan routes to China, the Tyrian had concluded that the known *oikoumenē* occupied fifteen hours of the sun's apparent course, leaving, therefore, little more than one-third of the earth's circumference to be traversed by the westward voyager. Such an idea Toscanelli formulated, and such was the burden of the famous letters sent by him to the great discoverer. Western Europe was thus stretching forth more and more toward eastern Asia. And when later a belief in the existence of two great islands in the Atlantic—Cipango and Antilia—was fully developed, a map of the world according to the views of Marinus and Toscanelli presented to the sailor a singularly inviting aspect. With scarcely a third of the globe's circumference to be traversed, and with the two great islands for resting-places, the difficulty of the Hispano-Indian voyage seemed materially reduced. And yet, after all, this brilliant conception evolved by the long line of inquirers from Aristotle to Toscanelli was but a theory which could be defended and attacked with almost equal reason. No indisputable proof could be produced on either side; hence the interminable character of the geographical controversies of the middle ages.

There were in general two theories respecting the distribution of land and water areas on the globe. One—the continental—which regarded the seas as so limited that they were really nothing more than inland lakes; the other—the oceanic—which regarded the lands as relatively insignificant in extent and hemmed in on all sides by enormous expanses of water. As a logical outgrowth of the continental theory there grew up a belief in vast bodies of land occupying quarters of the globe opposite to each other. For example, the geographer Macrobius at the close of the fourth century A. D. was teaching that the earth contained four great land areas, two in the

northern and two in the southern hemisphere—that is, that the globe was divided into four segments by two broad belts of ocean, one occupying the region of the equator, the other the region of a great circle at right angles to the first. From this conception it was but a step to a belief in the existence of *antipodes*, i.e., lands in the quarter diametrically opposite the Mediterranean group. Finally it was urged that these lands were inhabited. In the country of these far-away people, according to the logic of the day, trees would grow downwards, rain and snow would fall upwards. These were indeed strange conclusions, and the vulgar mind shrank from accepting them. In fact, the entire theory of the sphericity of the earth came near being cast aside, so far as all except the philosophers were concerned, because of the insistence of the latter upon what seemed so palpable an absurdity as the existence of men who walked upon the lower convex surface of the sphere “as a fly walks on the ceiling.” This theory was especially obnoxious to the middle age theologians, who were shocked at the idea that somewhere on the surface of the sphere there existed a race of men who were not descended from Adam, and who were, therefore, outside the scope of human redemption. With manifest disgust the worthy Lactantius, a churchman of the fourth century A. D., exclaims:

“What fool believes that there are men walking with their feet higher than their heads? or that objects which with us lie on the ground are there suspended from it? or that trees and plants spring downwards, and that snow, rain, and hail fall upwards? The hanging gardens of Babylon, forsooth, need no longer be accounted among the world's wonders. If this philosophers' nonsense were true, half the globe, with all its fields, seas, cities, and mountains, were one vast hanging garden.”

This was the verdict of the dogmatist as opposed to the reasoning of the philosopher; and, as is usually the case, in the popular mind the dogmatist had right of way. The sphericity of the earth was admitted by St. Augustine, but he had no tolerance for the idea that men could inhabit lands on the opposite side of the earth. Indeed, what the church fathers so persistently opposed was not so much the idea of the existence of such lands as the theory of their habitation. Among later participants in the controversy were two of the most famous churchmen of the middle ages—Isidore of Seville (seventh century) and the Venerable Bede (eighth century). The former strenuously denied the habitation of the antipodes;

the latter not only accepted the habitation theory but even went so far as to declare that between the two worlds there could be no possible communication. In spite of all the attempts to crush it out as heresy, the theory of a spherical earth and inhabitants on the side opposite to Europe continued to live in men's minds. During the revival of geographical speculation which took place in the thirteenth century, the theory of many inhabited lands won a signal triumph by gaining the unequivocal sanction of the two great leaders of contemporary thought—Albertus Magnus, a German Dominican friar, and Roger Bacon, a Franciscan friar of Oxford. Albertus rejected Isidore's doctrine of the uninhabitability of the torrid lands, and refuted the idea that men could not live in the antipodes without tumbling off into space. He further declared, in harmony with Bede before him, that, owing to the vast expanse of waters in the equatorial region, the inhabitants of the antipodes could not communicate with the known world. And in the "Opus Magnus" Roger Bacon was saying:

"Though the *oikoumenê* of Ptolemy be confined within one-fourth of the globe's surface, more of that surface is really habitable. The habitable surface of the earth must be considerable and that which is covered with water but small."

Another disciple of the continental theory in classical times was Cicero, who based his cosmic system chiefly upon the investigations of Eratosthenes. Although he indulges in speculations concerning the number and size of habitable surfaces on the globe, in general he confines himself to the Aristotelian doctrine of two *oikoumenai*—one in the northern, the other in the southern hemisphere—separated by an equatorial belt of ocean. In the last book of the "Republic" the younger Scipio is represented as relating a dream wherein the elder hero of the name, Scipio Africanus, conveying the youth to the lofty heights of the Milky Way, endeavors to show him the futility of fame by directing his attention to the regions upon the earth to which his name could never penetrate. "Thou seest," exclaims the rugged old warrior, "in what few places the earth is inhabited, and those how scant; great deserts lie between them, and they who dwell upon the earth are not only so scattered that naught can spread from one community to another, but so that some live off in an oblique direction from you, some off toward the side, and some even dwell directly opposite to you." Such a

revelation as this was calculated to daunt even the conquering spirit of the Augustan age. A century earlier (first B. C.) the greatest geographer of the time, Strabo, had discouraged the rising, though feeble, spirit of western discovery by affirming that, considering contemporary facilities for navigation, the distance from Spain to India was entirely too great to be traversed. And yet there is much truth in Humboldt's assertion that Strabo, of all the classicists, most clearly foreshadowed the discovery of America. After a long life of travel, the old Greek sat down in the eighty-fourth year of his life to write the geography of the world. After speaking at length of a *Terra Australis*, he thus suggests the existence of a *Terra Occidentalis*: "There may be in the same temperate zone two and indeed more inhabited lands, especially nearest the parallel of *Shinæ* (Athens), prolonged into the Atlantic ocean." About the same time the stoic Seneca, in the spirit of a philosopher, was making sport of Strabo's fears of the great ocean. "For what is it," inquires the stoic, "that lies between Spain and India?" The reply is unhesitating: "The space of but very few days' sail, if the wind be favorable." And then there is Seneca's immortal prophecy: "In tardy years the epoch will come in which the ocean will unloose the bonds of nature, and the great earth will stretch out, and the sea will disclose new worlds; nor will Thule be the most remote of the globe." At least two copies of this passage, which is part of a chorus in the tragedy of "Medea," are extant in the handwriting of Columbus; and in a copy of Seneca's "Tragedies" published at Venice in 1510, bought at Valladolid by Ferdinand Columbus in March, 1518, and now to be seen in the *Biblioteca Colombina* at Seville, one finds in the margin near the passage quoted a significant note added by the discoverer's son: "*Hæc prophetia expleta ē per patre meus cristoforū colū almiratē anno 1492.*"

The ablest exponent of the oceanic or "wet" theory in ancient times was Pomponius Mela, just as the most ardent and successful advocate of the continental or "dry" theory was Claudius Ptolemy. Mela wrote his book and constructed his map about 50 A. D.; Ptolemy set forth his views about a hundred years later. In Mela's book we read:

"The surface of the earth is girdled about the middle on all sides by the sea. In the same way it is divided into two parts from east to west, which parts

are called hemispheres; likewise it is marked off into five zones. Unendurable heat prevails in the middle zone, frosts in the extreme zones, but the two temperate zones are habitable. Of these latter the autochthones inhabit the one, we inhabit the other."

Of the eastern coast and the interior Mela knew less than Ptolemy, but of the Atlantic coast he knew more. This may well be explained by the respective residences of the two men—Ptolemy in Egypt and Mela in Spain. In the unvisited regions on all sides of the world Mela imagined vast seas, Ptolemy imagined vast deserts. Ptolemy represents the transition from ancient to medieval geography. He accepted the view that the circumference of the earth was half land and half water; and his opinions upon this, as well as other matters, supported by numerous observations and measurements, largely dominated the geographical thought of the middle ages. By Ptolemy's time enough was known of Africa to destroy Cicero's hypothesis of an equatorial girdle of water. Africa was known to extend south of the equator; and, as if to cut off all hope of reaching India by coasting around Africa, Ptolemy confidently asserted that the latter continent extended unbroken to the south pole. The great importance of this theory lay, of course, in the fact that it forced the conclusion that if India were ever to be reached from Europe by sea it must be by a westward voyage across the Atlantic.

We have sketched but a very small number of the geographical theories which the thinkers of Greece and Rome and medieval Europe produced. As geographical knowledge advanced, many hitherto accepted views had to be abandoned, but their places were never long left vacant. To ascertain fact was added prophecy—prophecy which was wonderfully sustained by later developments. The poets caught the spirit of the scientists and sang of the glories of the earth which were yet to be made manifest to the sons of men. Throughout all medieval times Europe was casting her eye ever more wistfully across the western ocean and only waiting for her sons to grow wise enough and brave enough to solve the mystery of the *Mare Tenebrosum*. At last, toward the close of the fifteenth century, there appeared one who was destined to draw back the curtain from the western world and "multiply the earth by two." But the work of Columbus was not entirely his own. All the philosophic speculations and scientific ideas and poetic fancies of the past were placed at his service. How was this done?

Among the hundreds of interesting volumes

to be found in the *Biblioteca Colombina* at Seville there is one that surpasses all the rest in the estimation of the historian. This book—known as the "*Imago Mundi*"—was first printed without indication of time or place, but in all probability the place was Paris and the time somewhere between 1483 and 1490. The compiler of the book was Pierre D'Ailly, commonly known as Alliacus, a schoolman of the University of Paris. Aside from his reputation as a scholar and writer, D'Ailly had become noted as the president of the commission which condemned John Huss to be burned. The "*Imago Mundi*" had no claim to originality. It set forth few new ideas and only to a very limited extent even the author's personal convictions. It was merely a compilation of all that the classical and medieval philosophers and scientists and poets had handed down to posterity with reference to the size, shape, and general configuration of the earth. Through this medium Columbus received his heritage from the past; and fortunate indeed it was for the progress of western discovery that D'Ailly's book was such as it was, and not merely one more system of doubtful theories spun from the fanciful brain of its author. Upon a few points, however, D'Ailly took occasion to express his own conclusions as well as to incorporate the results of many investigations which had been made long after the production of the texts which he was editing. Among other things he insisted that the *oikoumenê* was much larger than Ptolemy had said and that Western Europe was not far removed from eastern Asia. "It had been found," he says—improving upon the bare conjecture of Seneca—"that this space can be sailed over in a few days if the wind be favorable. The *oikoumenê* really extends far beyond the half of the latitude of the globe. In fact, the sea between India and Spain is but a comparatively narrow strip, running north and south." Thus the speculative process of contracting the Atlantic from more than two-thirds of the earth's circumference to "a comparatively narrow strip running north and south" was completed and the result of twenty centuries of thought was ready to be handed over to the navigator who was bold enough to defy the narrow strip. At Seville is preserved Columbus's own copy of the "*Imago Mundi*." The margins are filled with notes in his handwriting. One can imagine the anxious and impatient solicitude with which the enthusiastic sailor would scan the precious pages in

search of evidence that his schemes were not wholly visionary and futile. He found much that was discouraging, but more that was encouraging. He found that while the great mass of men in all ages had been very skeptical concerning the propositions of the philosophers, and while the philosophers themselves were hopelessly divided, yet the general drift of classical and medieval thought had been in the direction of his hopes. Commercial and religious considera-

tions afforded the immediate incentives to the undertaking of Columbus. Mere scientific inquiry and philosophical speculation and poetic imagination had to be supplemented by motives of a more practical character. But the ultimate foundations of western discovery had been building ever since antiquity. In this very important line of human progress Columbus but added reason to the thoughts of Plato and Aristotle, Strabo and Seneca, Ptolemy and Toscanelli.

BIRDS' NESTS.

BY N. HUDSON MOORE.



ALL birds may be broadly divided into two classes—those that nest upon the ground and those that nest above it, remembering that circumstances alter the habits of birds, for some that are tree-builders with us become ground-builders in treeless and arid parts.

The domestic hen scratches together a few wisps of grass or straw, and raises there her clutch of eggs. The quail does the same thing, choosing to hide away her home among fern and bracken, isolation being one of her methods of protection. The whippoorwill and nighthawk build no nest, and the same explanation answers for all: The young are born feathered or covered with down, and are able to run about almost from birth, so a nest is not needed as a shelter. This class of birds is technically termed "præcocial."

It is the birds whose young are born naked and helpless that bestow the most pains on the nest. Besides being a receptacle for the eggs during incubation, it must be large and strong enough to shelter the young till they are able to fly. "Altricial" birds, this class is called. Many birds, except those that breed in the far north, or in the "northern edge" of our country, seek the neighborhood of man. Around our homes, even in cities, we find the nests of orioles, robins, catbirds, summer yellowbirds, vireos, wrens and bluebirds.

Except those that live in communities, like the cheerful swallows, birds do not care for neighbors in the same bush or tree, yet this winter I have noted one elm with three orioles' nests hanging in it, and I know of two robins' nests on one branch. Last spring before the leaves were out I saw both nests occupied, the head of each mother-bird looking toward the east.

Habits, food supply and necessity for protection influence birds in selection of site, but they generally build true to type. Our robin uses mud if she can find or make it, yet the nest for the second brood usually has less than the first nest and is smaller.

Many naturalists believe that birds build by imitation, that they will repeat the pattern of the nest in which they were reared; but we believe in an instinct which guides them as to the selection of material and site, for birds that have been reared in a cage, and have never seen a nest, if allowed freedom, will return to the typical nest of the species. This has been proved by liberating cage-born cardinals and mocking-birds and letting them build in an enclosure.

The oriole's nest is easy to find and interesting to study. The male bird not only assists in the building of the nest but in the incubation. His brilliant coat renders him a shining mark to such hawks and birds of prey as haunt the neighborhood, so the nest is built long enough to conceal the sitting bird.

Last spring I supplied to an oriole in the garden, gray worsted cut in six-inch bits. She would gather these pieces and carry them to the tree where the male was in waiting, and he assisted in the weaving, occasionally stopping to give his rich, sweet call. When the nest was well under way, I added to each gray strip one of bright red or green. Invariably she threw the bright-colored strand on the ground and took the gray. Over and over they were picked up and replaced on the bushes; but while there was a strand of gray, she would not touch the colored, except to cast it forth, scolding all the time. For three days no gray worsted was furnished, but at the end of that time the colored yarn was all gone. She had

disposed of it in some way, for I cannot discover a single colored strand in the nest which is ten inches long, and looks like a much-worn gray stocking.



RED-EYED VIREO'S NEST.

In the south, the oriole, fire or hang-bird, as it is variously called, uses the Spanish moss in which to build its nest. In almost every one of these frail tenements you will find some strands of horsehair. Some birds, like the chipping sparrow, use it as lining.

All members of the vireo family build charming nests. The red-eye is the daintiest builder, and although you may easily recognize the pretty pocket firmly bound to the forked branch, you will be surprised at the individual preferences betrayed by different birds. For instance, the nest we show is made chiefly from spiders' web and silky threads of white birch-bark, and a little tough grape-vine fiber. The papery material from wasps' nests, bits of newspaper, cotton or wool shreds and plant down, are all used by these active little weavers. Look for these nests on the low growth at the wood's edge, even in road-side thickets in country districts.

The warbling vireo, one of our sweetest singers, builds high, but still uses the pocket shape. I know of three of these nests in one block, directly over a trolley line, within city limits.

Do not say in discouragement, "birds' nests are only to be found in the country." Your best "finds" may well come nearer home. The prettiest cedar bird's nest I ever found was in a maple tree that stood at the gate of a large school. It seemed a remarkable situation, for in the breeding season the cedar birds live in pairs and are very shy and elusive.

In pursuance of the idea that birds love the town, a walk of one mile towards the center of the city showed forty-five nests of which orioles, vireos, robins, and summer yellowbirds furnished the larger proportion. A walk of the same distance country-ward brought to light but thirty-eight, the species represented being the same.

Besides the birds that build a new nest for each brood, like the robin and song sparrow, there is a class that raises more than one brood in a nest, like the phoebe. There is also a number that repair last year's nest, like crows, owls, eagles and hawks; or use abandoned nests or boxes, like wrens, bluebirds, martins and nuthatches. There are a few that build no nest at all, but lay their eggs in any convenient depression, like night-hawks, (bull-bats they are sometimes called), whippoorwills and many aquatic birds.

Those birds that refit old nests or use holes in trees or fences, expend their greatest energies in carpeting the home, employing down, feathers, plant fiber or wool to make it soft. In gathering nests for examination, cut off carefully the branch on which the nest rests, note the kind of bush or tree it is on and its distance from the ground. Enter these details in your note-book for reference and comparison next year.

Birds of the marsh, like red-winged blackbirds, marsh wrens and swamp song sparrows, build nests that hang unrevealed till



HUMMING-BIRD'S NEST.

winter. Then the cozy pockets, woven of reeds and marsh grass, may be gathered.

The marsh wren's nest shows her family peculiarity, for she prefers to enter by a side door, as do other wrens. The swamp song sparrow, a bird of wide range, being found from the Atlantic to the plains, and from the Gulf to the far north, is so shy, so carefully eludes notice, that we may visit his haunts often and never see him. He builds a modest nest in low bush or tussock of grass, and on a bright winter's day you may come across this little home whose maker is quite a stranger to you.

The two most beautiful nests that we have are those built by the humming-bird and golden-crowned kinglet, two of our smallest birds. The former sets astride of a branch a little round cup, often using tough spider's web to bind it on. Plant-down makes the fairy-like lining, and the outside is covered with bits of moss and lichen so neatly dovetailed on that the little home looks like a mossy knot. Only two cream-white eggs, about as large as peas, are put in this tiny receptacle. Our only variety in the eastern states is the ruby-throated, but this family is peculiar to the new world, and there are five hundred species known. Many of these, while we are snowbound, are nesting this month in lower California, that land of flowers.

The kinglet's nest on the other hand, while a beautiful bit of weaving, is remarkable for its size, considering the maker. It is a long, pocket-like affair, carefully lined with feathers and down, and often accommodating a family of ten! Certain species the country over use the same material when it can possibly be found. The great crested flycatcher has a weird preference for snake skin. The catbird loves bits of paper, the chipping sparrow hair, and nearly all birds are glad of bits of rag and strings. The goldfinch nests late and uses down from the dandelion and white oak. The chimney swifts stick their bunch of twigs together with secretions from the salivary glands, and the "red-headed family," as the woodpeckers are called, chisel out their nests with their powerful bills.

PLEASANT READING FOR DULL DAYS.

"Our Tame Humming-Birds," see "Prose Writings of Ed. Rowland Sill."

"Birds' Nests," in "Wake-Robin" by John Burroughs. (Washington, D. C.)

"A Study of Birds' Nests" in "A Naturalist's Rambles About Home" by Dr. Abbott. (New Jersey.)

"Walden" by Henry Thoreau. (Massachusetts.)

February in "The Birds' Calendar" by Parkhurst. (New York.)

"Bird Notes Afield" by Keeler. (California.)

"Kentucky Cardinal" by James Lane Allen. (Kentucky.)

FEBRUARY NOTES.

By the end of this month there will be something in the air which will stir the blood. Our walks will yield us something of life to show us spring is on the way. The shrikes, the sparrow hawk, the hardy horned larks feel with us a new impulse, while at night the little screech owl sends out his shivering cry.

There are some little creatures besides birds that appreciate a deserted nest. If you find one of these somewhat roofed over, the ground beneath strewn with chaff, beware about being too hasty in gathering your prize. A meadow, or that rare variety, a white-foot mouse, may have taken it for the season and be snoozing away within, waiting for a warm February day.

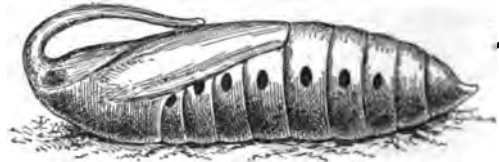
On the sunny side of a hay-stack or beneath the eaves of a barn, or even on the wood-pile look out for your earliest

"dandy butterfly
All exquisitely dressed."

It will be one of those hardy varieties that hibernate, and are sure to flutter out the first bright day. It may be the *Vanessa antiopa* or morning cloak. Or better yet, *Pyramis atalanta* or red admiral, one of our most familiar and widely distributed butterflies, being found throughout North America, Europe, Asia and Africa. Or perhaps the well-known thistle-butterfly or painted lady.

If the weather is warm enough, turn over the leaves under the grape-vines and you may find several loosely bound together and containing the chrysalis of the grape-vine sphinx. In May this will hatch into a very handsome moth.

In the field where last year grew potatoes or tomatoes, turn over a spadeful or two of dirt, and you will



CHRYSALIS OF POTATO WORM.

easily find the pupa of the potato or tomato worm. From this curious bronze case, with its handle on one side, will appear another fine moth, *Sphinx quinquemaculata*. In the handle is snugly coiled that long flexible proboscis which it thrusts into the tube-like flowers of the honey-suckle.

The mantis egg-case shown last month has proved more interesting than was at first supposed. It was named as the *Mantis Carolina*; although there were differences, these were laid down to its being found so much farther north than its range. Some of the adult insects were sent to Mr. Scudder, an expert, and he pronounces them to be the *Mantis religiosa*, a common European variety.

These insects have been known in Rochester, New York, for two or three years. It is the only place in the new world where they have been reported, and it is supposed they were brought here in nursery stock. This is one of the few importations of insects which is distinctly beneficial, as they destroy large numbers of insects more or less harmful. The writer has a small number of the cases which would be gladly passed on to such students of entomology as might care for the young insects.

[Answers to inquiries regarding this series of Nature Studies which began in the January CHAUTAUQUAN may be secured by sending a stamped envelope to N. Hudson Moore, 18 Bates street, Rochester, New York.—EDITOR.]

"UNCLE SAM" AS A BUSINESS MAN.

BY COL. RICHARD J. HINTON.



OMEHOW, the mention of our "Uncle Sam" brings a pleasant smile to the face of every intelligent American. It is curious, too, that such a conception as lies behind the name should have obtained a vogue strong enough to create a personal ideal for a nation of over seventy-six million people. And that nation one which has been drawn from every race, filtered by every blood, bleached or bronzed by every clime and led by all the tongues of the world. Shipbuilder John Roach, born a Kerry peasant and dying a failing capitalist, whose decline threatened to wreck an administration, often spoke of the great industrial workshops whereof he was a leading organizer, as being filled by a "congress of skill from every land." Yet "Uncle Sam" expresses an affectionate conception to everybody. Few recall the Nova Scotian humorist who first described "Sam Slick," the Connecticut clock-pedler, as "Uncle Sam," painting him as a typical American. The grotesque humor of the characterization, seized upon at first in the middle and southern states as a sneer at New England, fastened itself upon the easy, fun-loving side of the people at large, and "Uncle Sam" it has been ever since. "John Bull" has a notable place among caricatures, and "Johnny Crapaud" is a favorite of the jester, but our "Uncle Sam" has slowly pictorialized into something far more than a caricature. He has, in fact, grown into an embodiment of distinct American traits. It is the latter-day "Uncle Sam" with whom this paper will deal, sketchily, at least, in the varied rôle of the greatest of business men.

Our "Uncle Sam," being a republican, has a bit of imperial swagger nowadays; they are painting him, at least, in better fitting clothes than formerly. He is really, if not the owner of a vast estate in the sense that other executives such as a czar, a mikado or a kaiser might assume to be, the busiest and most important of land managers and stewards. He is the foremost "promoter" in the world; one of the two most responsible and active of nation administrators, and the liberal employer of the most useful and efficient, as well as practically the largest, body of workmen,

experts, clerks, scientists, artisans, mechanics and laborers, ever handled in unity by one directorate. "Uncle Sam" defies the economic doctrinaires and overrides their theories, but he does not always know it. Yet he has grown both strong and rich in doing so, and, as a matter of fact, he has seldom or never cared, historically, about the theory of the doctrinaire.

Examining the enormous mass of details at hand, I find that the simplest way to state the conclusions reached is to present in summarized form the number of helpers that our "Uncle Sam" employs, and the cost of their work, grouping them as employees—clerical, technical, skilled industrial, and manual laborers.

The civil service statistics of the fiscal year (1896-97) preceding the declaration of war against Spain are taken to illustrate the business of a normal year, not one of war. It was found that the army of civil servants, with its auxiliaries of "skilled" and "unskilled" labor, and the small but important corps of scientific experts and technical workers that was employed, numbered 178,884 persons, of whom about 3,500 were women. The cost of this great service was not less than \$100,000,000. I am using round numbers and necessarily must make some estimates, for the official report does not and cannot cover all the specialized or even clerical and ordinary labor employed. Of course, the greater part of the appropriations and expenditures for this service as administered is drawn in the form of taxation from the patient people. Yet it is a fact that a large proportion of the great total appropriated annually by congress is obtained through public payment for services actually rendered by agencies that "Uncle Sam" directs.

The sum total of appropriations made for the fiscal year 1900-01, which ends June 30, was \$457,152,142.98. Investigation will show that of this total not less than \$12,000,000 comes from sources other than taxation, through customs or internal revenue sources. The postal service will illustrate this statement.

Congress appropriated direct, for the year given, over \$113,000,000 for the "postal service." In post-office operations this sum does not include cost of the department



ROLLED FOUNDATION OF AN OBJECT-LESSON ROAD.

FINISHING TOUCHES TO THE SAME ROAD.

Built under the Auspices of the Office of Public Road Inquiries, Department of Agriculture.

proper, but only covers the general work of carrying and serving the mails. The law provides, moreover, that this great sum is to be earned while the expenditure goes on, and the law goes so far as to make provision for a conditional order on the treasury if any deficit arises. The real expenditures for this vast service, outside shelter, labor, and transportation, are comparatively small, for "Uncle Sam" buys his stamps and other stationery at a small cost and sells at a very large profit. It might be more advantageous, also, to manufacture direct rather than through contractors.

The general land office, the patent and copyright services, and our consular system, fully pay their cost and turn into the treasury a surplus of about \$2,500,000. It is a curious comment on the free silver discussion of the past few years that the entire cost of our expensive system of mints, assay offices, and coinage is met more than four times over from the "seigniorage" or profit arising between the "bullion" or commercial price and the purchasing and face value of the coins. The total current appropriation for mint service is \$1,517,724.62. The reports for 1899-1900 show a total of earnings at the various mints and assay offices of \$6,670,030.70. Of this total, \$5,205,713.77 arises from "seigniorage," or the difference between the market rate of metal and face value of coins as issued. The total of other earnings was \$1,464,916.93, or but \$52,825.69 less than the total appropriation. The United States mints and assay offices therefore earned for the last fiscal year a total sum of \$6,618,205.01.

The consular service requires \$879,794.48. The returns therefrom exceed one million

dollars. Copyright also gives profit, and the patent offices will put back a good deal more than the \$1,003,794.48 appropriated for this fiscal year's expenditure. Various other sums are noted, each small in itself, but aggregating a large amount. It may therefore be conservatively claimed that "Uncle Sam's" landed estate and important sections of the great service supplied are sources of notable revenue.

The statesmanship in beneficence, which characterizes much of "Uncle Sam's" administration, is the result of the civil interdependence that democracy must produce. It is difficult sometimes to tell where beneficence begins and promotion comes in, but there can be no question as to the very largest segment of the expenditures now referred to. The military pension and retired pay policy are both subject to theoretical criticism as well as to the discontent of taxpayers. But "Uncle Sam's" method of regarding this problem has evolved wholly, it would seem, from the large experiences of a land dependent merely upon the good-will of its own citizens. The country has conducted in great part its necessary armed processes upon the plan of volunteer service. So, perforce, "Uncle Sam" has been compelled to recognize patriotic devotion lavishly represented, by reward of bounty land and pension grant. It is against the looseness of administrative enactment and action, and not against the policy itself, that just criticism should be directed. The protective services, like lighthouse and life-saving establishments, our extensive quarantine and marine hospital work, and the great ocean and coast surveys designed for the safety of the mariners as well as the advancement of commerce on the seas, are a large part of this division.



APPEARANCE OF AN IRRIGATION CANAL WHEN FIRST COMPLETED.

APPEARANCE OF AN IRRIGATION CANAL TEN YEARS AFTER COMPLETION.

In every direction "Uncle Sam" has been in the lead and often the initiator of international movements for human amelioration and for the growth of contracts and agreements which make for peace and civilization. Indeed, it will be found by an examination of their history that the impulses which have created such a policy are nearly all traceable to the conditions created by democracy and representative government, since the Liberty Bell at Philadelphia first rang out its auspicious proclamation.

Education is another of "Uncle Sam's" specialties. There has always been a large liberality in the school, college and university land grants that have been bestowed. These have brought and continue to bring a vast economic return. Sixty colleges of agriculture and mechanic arts have been created since 1863, as provided for in the "Morrill act" and those that have been passed subsequently. Aid is now given to fifty experiment stations. Results from these institutions furnish vigorous proof of the wisdom of such public beneficence. "Uncle Sam's" Indian policy has of late years more and more definitely assumed the same form. The current appropriations call for \$3,088,409 for Indian schools, and at least one-third of the remaining \$8,297,769 for Indian service is to be expended for help in farming, trade-teaching, and for medical service and other ameliorative purposes.

The bureau of education in the Department of the Interior, the costly naval observatory, the contributions continuously made to science in the way of astronomical and other scientific expeditions, the Smithsonian Institution and its congeries of illustrative educational institutions, the services of the naval hydrographic division, and the great medical museum, with the constant additions

made to the protective sciences by our naval and military surgeons, are all parts of the great work that "Uncle Sam" carries on along educational lines. This investigation of expenditures, therefore, covers a total sum in current appropriations of not less than \$162,000,000, of which, however, pensions and the support of the volunteer soldiers' and sailors' homes and hospitals call for about \$150,000,000. The remaining twelve millions are taken up by the other indicated lines. The extent of employment therein is one of its remarkable features.

The lighthouse system, for example, divided into seventeen districts which cover 10,000 miles of dangerous coast, lake and river navigation, requires a force of forty-six naval and engineer officers detailed thereto, and 4,306 persons employed in different capacities, of whom 916 are the masters and crews of 68 light-ships and several supply tenders. The life-saving service, located in twelve coast and lake shore districts, requires a force of about 1,100 persons. The marine hospital and quarantine services are closely related, the latter having twenty-four stations, mostly in the south, and an appropriation of \$905,712; while the hospital service, designed as protection and service in contagions, has a standing emergency appropriation of \$500,000. Its annual staff work requires \$36,100 and for new buildings it receives \$10,700. There are other illustrations of the constant service on the humane side of affairs given by "Uncle Sam," but these will serve the purpose sought.

Public works form a large item, as the following table shows. The figures cover the legislative appropriations as shown by the treasury digest for 1900-01. The fiscal year begins on July 1 and closes on June 30. The total includes deficiencies amounting to



THE HOSPITAL SHIP "RELIEF."

(Former S. S. *John Englis*, used in Cuba and Porto Rico, now employed in the transportation of sick and wounded from Manila.)

\$13,767,008.75, and does not include \$113,658,238.75 appropriated for the general postal service out of its own earnings. The total given by the treasury is as follows:

Legislative establishment	\$ 5,006,165.45
Executive establishment	20,898,149.20
Judicial establishment	827,436.87
Foreign intercourse	2,101,092.65
Military establishment	114,635,127.65
Naval establishment	55,623,4220.3
Indian affairs	9,828,744.74
Pensions	145,245,554.35
Public works	40,984,385.88
*Postal service	48,740.31
Miscellaneous	61,953,323.58

Grand total \$457,152,142.98

*This sum represents the postmaster-general's office only.

It is not all plain sailing in our "Uncle Sam's" administration. Hampered with passing or fading traditions as to the "sphere" of government, he has considerably managed to waste a great amount of money for the benefit of special citizens and classes, by failing to perceive that coöperation in supply and service is the logical and normal way of administering the interests of a democracy as organized into a self-governing republic under representative institutions. The old adage that "the least government is the best government," is responsible for much of waste, corruption and monopoly, because of a misleading application to the administrative and ameliorative functions which the associative forces of modern civilization have created and are steadily increasing. For example, adding the postal expenditures and subtracting the deficiencies, we shall have for the current year a total sum of at least \$547,000,000 appropriated. The Chinese imbroglio was not in the legislative purview,

and it is likely, therefore, to create a deficiency of somewhere near \$25,000,000.

One of the important items in the foregoing summary is that of public works, and in this connection it may also be assumed that one of the unwise expenditures as a rule, though sometimes necessary, is that of rental payments. It amounts, at present, to over \$1,000,000 per year. At least \$30,000,000 has been paid under this heading since "Uncle Sam" first had to find roofs to shelter his representatives and employes. As a matter of interest this sum would have paid for loans large enough to have constructed all the public buildings, forts, yards, etc. we have built so far, and now need. It would have provided a sinking-fund sufficient for payment of loans in due order, and it would have prevented a great deal of "log-rolling," as the late Senator Sawyer so aptly



AFTER WARD ON UPPER DECK OF THE "RELIEF."

termed the business of combining legislation and private profit.

The army of skilled labor which "Uncle Sam" employs direct, does not appear in connection with the civil structures or river

and harbor improvements included under the term "public works," because material and men for these undertakings are secured under law by contracts publicly advertised and let. There are those who believe with this writer that the experience of "Uncle Sam" in the direct employment of industrial capacity in other lines affords fair object-lessons in this direction of public service.

Viewed from this standpoint the government printing office is one of "Uncle Sam's" especially remarkable industrial establishments. The impressive structure now rising rapidly, will, when completed, be the most perfect home of the "art preservative" known to the haunts of men. Even the present one is spectacular in aspect, with its 242,500 square feet of floor space, filled with the most capable of workmen and the best machinery and tools that their work requires. The new building will have a

binderies and folding rooms hold 835 employees. The specification room takes 254, and elsewhere in the huge group of workshops and offices are 200 more clerks, laborers, engineers, etc., making a total force in "the printery" itself of 3,705 persons. Six branches are maintained in as many departments, and three hundred compositors, pressmen, and feeders are therein employed.

The treasury bureau of engraving and printing is another of "Uncle Sam's" great hives of skilled labor. It carries on a series of highly developed industries, having almost a monopoly of them. Again our "Uncle Sam" puts himself in defiance of alleged laws of economic development by refusing to use steam-power presses for the sake of cheapness (and incidentally for the benefit of a remunerative patent monopoly) where hand presses can do much finer work and enable the members of what its opponents call a

"labor trust"—that is the Plate-Printers' Union—to earn high wages and have a remarkable continuity of employment. There are not fewer than 2,700 persons employed today in this work. (The official record of 1897 gave the total as 1,617, at a cost of \$1,221,-856.65). The appropriation for 1900-01 shows an increase to \$2,-242,186.41. These figures are a measure of the "expansion," both of work and cost, now in process. The administrative, clerical, watch and labor staff will hardly exceed 200 persons, so that the same rule



MICROSCOPIC INSPECTION OF PORK AT CHICAGO, BY THE BUREAU OF ANIMAL INDUSTRY.

floor space of 619,700 square feet, or 377,-200 more than the present one. There are more than twenty divisions in this establishment. There are 841 compositors when congress is in session and only 113 are laid off when adjournment discontinues the publication of the *Congressional Record*. On the *Record* 130 of the most skilled compositors are kept at work regularly to bring it out on time—which is 10 A. M. daily. This is always achieved, no matter how late debate may have raged, though the diurnal record may not in one number cover all that has been said, as some speaker is sure to withhold his utterances "for revision." The printing requires 288 pressmen and helpers to run 127 presses in daily use; the machinery requires the services of three great electric generators and 219 motors. There are engines, also, of 900 horse-power and boilers of 1,200 horse-power. The stereotype foundry employs 75 workmen, while huge

evolved in the government printery will apply even more forcibly in this workshop—skilled labor receives three-fourths of the whole expenditure.

Another highly organized center of skill and labor is found in the navy-yard at Washington, whose extended water-front overlooks the sluggish waters of the so-called Eastern Branch of the Potomac. That picturesque place is the seat of the most modern of ordnance and gun foundries and factories. It is not possible to more than refer to the multifarious crafts that are carried on there. Within these purlieus there are shops huge in extent, alive with Plutonian forces, forges and furnaces fit for Vulcan's use, and equipped with machinery almost marvelous in both the power and delicacy of its operations. The skilled force employed in this naval ordnance yard is of the highest character. It has nearly doubled in numbers as well as in cost during three

years past, and there is seen to be a larger number of high-paid artisans and mechanics than is employed in any other American establishment. At least fifty branches of metal working, casting and forging are in operation, and the contingent occupations, technical crafts, or various branches of skilled labor, number as many more. The civil and mechanical engineers, constructors and draftsmen, chemists and helpers are the best in the land. The divisions into which the army ordnance and navy-yard workmen are grouped also illustrate forcibly the

has been increased fourfold in the past three years.

An illustration of adaptability was given when the exigencies of war were most apparent. At Washington, the general postal service includes two extensive repair shops, one for mail-bags and one for mail-bag locks. The former was profitably, though temporarily, extended in the much needed direction of tent-making for the troops in Cuba and elsewhere.

In the navy-yard the variety of mechanical, manufacturing and other crafts is much greater than in the ordnance shops and arsenals. The workmen have been registered under civil service requirements, and the list of occupations as published, cover in two schedules — one of helpers and laborers proper, and the other the craftsmen and artisans needed — 120 different grades and occupations. Of the total, 92 grades are for mechanics and tradesmen and 28 for their helpers. The work requires almost every kind of craftsmen; metal, wood and stone workers, constructors of all sorts, upholsterers, cabinet-makers, textile workers, including weavers and spinners in canvas-cloth and hemp, printers, painters, plumbers, engineers, draftsmen, and other varieties of skilled workmen. In 1897 there were just 5,000 such employes; this year the number is three times as great.

Under the army quartermaster-general's direction, our "Uncle Sam" authorizes the existence of the largest clothing factory and harness and saddlery shops that are grouped under one directorate. At the Schuylkill arsenal, Philadelphia, these shops may be found. They employ over 2,500 workers, and do a business of from eight to nine million dollars per year. The public at large has but little conception of the quality of goods made and the extent to which skilled labor is employed. The United States army is indeed a veritable training school in the arts and trades preservative as well as those that are destructive. Its officers control and work quarries, build and manage railroads, canals, highways, bridges, hospitals, forts, prisons, lighthouses. For ordnance and quartermaster service, the military service owns and runs a considerable force of steam tugs, fine cutters, tenders and other vessels, some of which are among the swiftest and prettiest of vessels that navigate our great harbors and coast lines. The expansion of the war has also brought under the quartermaster's service flag the transport, supply, and hospital ships. The latter, at



NEW BUILDING FOR GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE.

variety of occupations enrolled in manufacturing and constructive enterprises to meet our "Uncle Sam's" multitudinous needs. It is found, for example, that three years ago the army ordnance bureau employed in its various armories, arsenals, and other shops, 372 machinists, 29 mechanics of various grades, 135 helpers, 54 tool-makers, 15 draftsmen, 3 high grade civil construction and mechanical engineers, 7 stationary and locomotive engineers, 40 inspectors and assistants, — skilled men necessarily required in all the operations. There were also 76 carpenters, 85 smiths of various grades, 4 masons, pattern makers, instrument and gage makers, engravers and die sinkers, millwrights, plumbers, tinsmiths, cutters, filers, and other craftsmen to the number of 127. These were all classified, and in addition there were 364 skilled men employed at piece-work, 444 more used as "skilled" laborers, besides enough miscellaneous helpers, to make in all 2,099 persons, at a total cost of \$1,459,135.96. The current appropriation for the same kind of work is \$5,118,586, showing that the force

least as a permanent part of such service, is a valuable innovation.

Army engineers have been not only most capable in protective services, but they have also ministered to material needs and have largely promoted pioneer settlement, industrial activity, and commercial growth. Indeed, officers of our army and navy are noted for their business integrity and personal honor. These qualities are supplemented by an adaptability for administering civil duties, which places them among the most valuable of public servants. A notable example of this may be seen in the admirable census of Cuba, a report of which has just been issued by Lieutenant-Colonel Sanger, inspector-general of our forces there. It is an excellent document and is especially interesting in its educational return, showing the large results already achieved.

To recapitulate, then, the sums paid for service performed and labor done, outside of the army and navy proper, we have the following result:

Appropriated for clerical and other labor in navy-yards, etc.	\$ 773,597
Estimated pay for civilian service and labor in connection with field operations	17,025,845
Estimated pay for labor and skilled service outside civil service proper	27,672,776
Under civil service laws, classified and unclassified	110,757,836

Total for civilian services rendered and labor done \$156,230,054

The actual pay of the present army and navy rank and file will bring this total to more than \$200,000,000. A heavy salary



SEWING MATERIAL FOR TENTS IN "UNCLE SAM'S" GREAT OUTFITTING ESTABLISHMENT—THE BUSY SCHUYLKILL ARSENAL AT PHILADELPHIA.

(From Leslie's Weekly, Sept. 1, 1898. By permission.)

and wage roll for one people to carry. At least two-thirds of the civilian total will really be for technical and skilled labor.

The most interesting phase of this analysis

of "Uncle Sam's" work will probably be found in that which the writer has termed "promoting." A considerable proportion of other administration—even of the routine department labor—belongs to this



ROAD BETWEEN NORRIS AND THE GRAND CAÑON, YELLOWSTONE PARK, MADE BY U. S. ARMY ENGINEERS.

division, but it cannot be distinctly separated. Much has already been shown of how the army and the navy traverse the same paths. Both have conducted wilderness explorations and surveys, directed improvements in navigable waters and thereby given magnificent impetus to trade and industrial life. The scientific side of army and naval life, and of the medical staff especially, is essentially creative in human safety and national growth. The geodetic, coast and geological surveys, with those of topography and hydrography, especially relating to the treatment of forests and arid lands, are fruitful of enormous results. They are large factors in that scientific development which will surely make it possible in the future to utilize two-fifths of this continental union by means of irrigation and other agencies such as the adaptation of water-power through electrical appliances. They are also factors in that greater phase of water management which some day will embrace alike the protection of our vast coast lines; the drainage of great meadows and swamp areas, and the handling of the entire drainage and flood needs of the Mississippi basin from the Appalachian range to the farther Rockies, and from the Great Lakes to the river outlets at the Gulf. All these are in the horoscope that "Uncle Sam" continually casts. They may not appear in concrete form today, but they will come tomorrow.

microbes. Consumptives who would have coughed their lives away in the sweltering atmosphere of a tropical coast-resort, recovered in a winter-camp of the upper Adirondacks,—sleeping in open tents, under twenty woolen blankets, if a dozen should not prove sufficient, but breathing the absolutely pure air of a climate almost as cold as that of northern Manitoba.

East and west, north and south, the prevalence of pulmonary diseases is strictly proportioned to that of indoor occupations. Catarrhs of the most virulent kinds infest the factory tenements of southern Italy, while the lungs of Canadian trappers are as sound as those of the north-wood bears and deer. There are reindeer haunting the mountain glens of Spitzbergen, in a climate where ice forms every night even in mid-summer, and where the severity of the winter frosts penetrates cabins of foot-thick planks, with hillocks of stamped clay packed all around. They shrink to gaunt frame-works of bones and hide, in hard winters, but their lungs are free from every trace of disease, while the Swedish naturalist Winmark attests the fact that confinement in the stuffy stables of the lower latitudes affects them with a disorder closely resembling "influenza" and consumption. Soldiers on the march recover from pulmonary affections that promptly reappear upon their return to their barrack quarters. The origin of the catarrh superstition appears to be the circumstance that winter is, *par excellence*, the season of indoor life. Hear-say mongers notice the concomitance of snow and snuffles, but forget that the domestic arrangements of countless catarrh victims surround them with an atmosphere of artificial summer—minus the purifying gales of the outdoor world.

"Colds" are, indeed, less frequent in midwinter than at the beginning of spring. The disinfectant influence of a severe frost asserts itself through double walls and weather-stripped windows and paralyzes the germs of lung diseases in spite of the patients' precautions; but under the auspices of a protracted thaw, those germs revive,—with a virulence that explains the supposed effects of damp weather.

II. THAT LATE SUPPERS ARE INJURIOUS.

Dr. Boerhave advised dyspeptics never to eat till they had leisure to digest, and during a period of eleven hundred years, the wisest, healthiest and most vigorous nations of antiquity made it a rule to eat their principal

meal—call it dinner or supper—at the end of the working day.

The indorsement of that rule by the lessons of instinct may be inferred from the habits of our nature-abiding fellow-creatures. A gorged wolf retires to his den; deer and wild cows browse all night to pass the day drowsing in the shelter of a thicket; surfeited serpents rest for weeks. Infants, too, sleep soundest after being nursed, and become fretful under the too-long ignored monitions of appetite.

The plan of eating a heavy meal at noon and returning to work almost directly from the dinner-table explains the prevalence of dyspepsia in countries not enjoying the long afternoon recess of the tropics. "No other hygienic mistake," says a sanitary reformer, "has done so much to multiply alimentary complaints as the habit of after-dinner work. Not only that the progress of digestion is thus interrupted, not only that the body derives no strength from the inert mass of ingesta, but that mass, by undergoing a putrid instead of a peptic decomposition, vitiates the humors of the system it was intended to nourish. Interrupted digestion complicates the labors of the stomach and gradually impairs the vigor of the whole alimentary apparatus."

Hence the gastric torments of poor over-worked teachers who (unlike happier servants of the public) cannot shirk their work, and have to snatch their dinner during a brief interval of the hardest kind of mental drudgery. Hence the sallow complexions, the hollow eyes and the weary gait of thousands of city clerks, lawyers, newspaper hacks and even physicians. They could achieve independence from drug-tonics and shorten their attacks of hypochondria by the simple plan of lengthening the intervals of their meals. Converts to the "one meal and a half" system need not join the midnight revels of metropolitan gormands. A light breakfast, a mere nibble of Graham crackers at noon and a full meal at 6 P. M. would be a good compromise arrangement; and with a long evening and all night for digestion the stomach would soon get its arrears of work under control.

The general adoption of that plan would also abate another strangely prevalent fallacy: the supposed natural antagonism of the brain and the stomach,—the alleged impossibility of combining studious habits with a sound digestion. Restricted to proper hours, head-work is as stimulating as any other kind of labor and promotes digestion, instead of

hindering it. The nature-abiding habits of such men as Boileau, Cuvier, Linnæus, Goethe and Humboldt, enabled them to reconcile the mental strain of their prodigious literary activity with the enjoyment of almost uninterrupted health.

III. THAT NIGHT AIR IS INJURIOUS.

In passing along a row of city tenements in the dawn of a midsummer day, about ninety-nine of a hundred windows can be seen tightly closed. Sleepers whose lungs crave life-air as a desert traveler thirsts after a draught of cold water, have excluded the refreshing night wind in obedience to the behest of a sanitary superstition. "Beware of draughts, get a dollar's worth of weather-strips; be sure to close your windows after dark"—in other words, exclude the air which the children of nature have for myriads of ages breathed with perfect impunity, and poison your lungs with the azotized, sickening atmosphere of an unventilated bedroom. We might as well advise a health-seeker to avoid rock springs and fill his water bucket at the effluent pipe of a festering city sewer. We might with the same logic admonish our children to beware of fresh vegetables and mountain strawberries, and still their hunger with the garbage of a dump-pile.

Millions of travelers pass the night in boats and open sheds, without the least injurious consequences; animals that perish with consumption in the atmosphere of a well-warmed menagerie, survive the tremendous night storms of the tropical forests.

Is night air a lung poison? Is the outdoor atmosphere made deadly by the absence of sunlight? Does the gas lamp of a stifling dormitory remedy that grievance? Must we exclude the cool night wind bringing relief to countless sufferers from the misery of a sweltering summer day?

It is no exaggeration to say that individuals who have freed themselves from the nightmare of that superstition can live out and out healthier in the central wards of a large manufacturing town than its victims on the airiest highlands of the southern Alleghenies.

IV. THAT PHYSICAL VIGOR DEPENDS UPON A DIET OF FLESH FOOD.

Wide-spread fallacies can generally be traced to some half-truth,—some ill-recorded or misinterpreted phenomenon of the world of facts. The advocates of "carnivorism," as Dr. Alcott used to call it, seem to have

been misled by noticing the debilitating effects of a bread and potato diet. Beings of our species cannot thrive upon starch alone, and only indifferently on starch and sugar; their organic needs crave an admixture of fat, in some form or other. But it does not follow that this ingredient has to be derived from the flesh of a slaughtered fellow-creature. It will serve its purpose as well, or better, in the form of olive oil, nut food, butter or milk. Dr. Isaac Jennings, the author of "Medical Reform," called attention to the fact that a full meal of meat accelerates the pulse and causes a sort of digestive fever, as if the organism were hastening to rid itself of a more or less unwelcome intruder. Virulent drugs and intoxicating tonics provoke those symptoms in an aggravated degree, and, like alcoholic intemperance, habitual surfeits of flesh food can be detected by the evidence of the complexion; a beef-gorged butcher becomes almost as florid as an immoderate wine-drinker. Besides, it has often been pointed out that "carnivorism" exerts a moral by-effect; "wolf-food," says Dr. Vogt, "excites the instincts manifested by beasts of prey, and the predominance of those instincts becomes very pronounced in races who, like the Indians of the North American prairies, subsist almost exclusively upon the products of the chase."

A biographer of the vegetarian Shelley went so far as to denounce meat-eating as the chief obstacle to the advent of the millennium, and remarked that we might as well endeavor to watch and pray while fuddling our brains with the fumes of opium.

And it must be admitted that our organization is strictly analogous to that of our frugivorous fellow-creatures. Our teeth, our hands, our digestive organs are those of our Darwinian relatives who subsist mainly on fruits and seeds, but, by the way, have not the slightest objection to eggs and milk, though they would rather perish with hunger than save their lives by sacrificing those of their vertebrate fellow-beings. Like the nomads of the Syrian desert, they will now and then eke out a meal with locusts, but reject meat unless its taste should have been disguised by tricks of cooking and spicing. Of sweet milk they are ravenously fond, as any visitor to a public menagerie may notice at feeding-time. And only the buzz of irascible hornets would induce them to avoid honey which a dietetic rigorist likewise includes in his interdict, as prepared in the organism of insects, and therefore partaking

of the characteristics of an animal substance.

But the main objection to rational vegetarianism is exploded by the indisputable fact that the stoutest men of our latter-day world are habitual abstainers from flesh food. The Constantinople 'longshoremen pull freight boats against a strong current and handle burdens in a way that transcends belief, shouldering bales that would stagger a pack-mule and carrying a couple of flour-barrels up a steep levee and up the still steeper ladders of a warehouse. Captain Edward Trelawney saw a Turkish mountaineer chop off the branches of a rain-soaked log, and then adjust the stump upon his back, together with his ax and a bundle of camping outfit,—as a fair load for his return trip to a cabin on the opposite slope of a deep chasm.

"Their hand-grips," he says, "suggest wrestling abilities that would dismay our athletes, if aided by proper training, and their knee-joints never tire, at least never on marches measured by a southern summer day."

Yet these modern Samsons are vegetarians,—from necessity, if not from choice, for they certainly do not share the biological prejudices of the Buddhists. Rather than starve, they would slaughter a herd of Brahmin bulls, but they are much too poor to afford the market-price of meat in a country where stockfarmers are taxed within a rupee of their income. As a rule, they subsist on bread and olive oil, with a bunch of grapes, now and then, or a penny's worth of dried figs.

The Pythagoreans of old were as frugal as Hindus, yet boasted such disciples as Milo, of Crotona, who could kill a steer with the blow of his fist and carry the carcass around the half-mile circuit of the arena.

The conquerors of the Roman empire, the iron-fisted Teutons, were by no means all hunters and venison-eaters, for they had a goddess of field-crops, and tutelary spirits of milch farms. They also raised fruit trees, and their lineal descendants, the natives of the North sea coast-lands, subsist mainly on milk and farinaceous food, though they furnish the stoutest men of the Prussian navy.

Nor can it be said that a diet of potatoes and milk has impaired the physical vigor of the Irish peasants, who, besides, demonstrate the fact that protracted vegetarianism is compatible with a good deal of pugnacity.

V. THAT ALCOHOLIC STIMULANTS ARE INDISPENSABLE IN A COLD CLIMATE.

Lord Dufferin, in his "Letters from High Latitudes," records the fact that two total abstainers of his crew braved Arctic gales in a manner that surprised their brandy-stimulated comrades, and several thousand men could attest the still more remarkable staying powers of the Italian auxiliaries who had followed Napoleon to Moscow. In the last agony of that ill-fated expedition whole regiments of gin-braced Northlanders flung down their muskets and sank exhausted into the arms of death, while the abstemious, if not absolutely abstinent, natives of the south trudged on, sustained by hope and the resisting strength of an unpoisoned organism.

The secret of the belief in the calorific value of alcohol (which, by the way, has been tested and found wanting by actual thermal measurements) may be found in the circumstance that frost is an antidote and stimulates the vigor of the digestive organs to a degree which, for a time, palliates the effects of dietetic mistake. In other words, Northmen can fuddle with alcohol without incurring the *immediate* penalties that avenge intemperance of all sorts in summer climates, but there is not a shadow of a doubt that in the long run total abstinence would be the safest plan, the world over.

VI. THAT THE SICK MUST BE DOSED WITH DRUGS.

Alarmed by the results of their manifold sins against the health laws of nature, the dupes of the drug-monger feel the impulse to "take something," i. e., to swallow a dose of virulent chemicals. The time is near, when under similar circumstances, the disciples of natural hygiene will feel prompted to stop swallowing, i. e., to try the effects of a fast. Missing a meal is generally all that is needed to assist nature, which will manage the remedial process successfully, in a manner of her own, when not handicapped by a load of undigested food. A day of total abstinence, in that literal sense, may, moreover, obviate the risk of pathological complications; the patient will save the price of three restaurant tickets, together with a long bill of supplementary drugs. Those who insist on "taking something," should be advised to take a bath or a little outdoor exercise.

CROSS-CUTS FOR LITERARY WAYFARERS.

BY JULIA B. ANTHONY.



WHILE it is quite true that there is no royal road to learning, it is equally certain that there are cross-cuts to information. Even Sir Francis Bacon—"the first of those who know"—admits that "some books are to be tasted" while "others are to be read and digested," and he might have added that the same book is sometimes to be tasted and at other times to be read and digested.

Sometimes we read a book and would fain roll some special portion as a delicious morsel under our tongue. We open the book again. Where is it? The desired fact, fancy, luminous statement or humorous tidbit is lost in the mass of printed words as completely as winter-green berries under a snowbank. When we turn from the literature of power to the literature of knowledge, the need of a guide to the contents of a book is still more urgent. The considerate author furnishes three aids—a Preface, a Table of Contents and an Index. The Preface—one groans as one recalls the long apologies, the marshaling of justification for later statement, which our fathers were condemned to—leave unread! Yet the modern title-page often gives not more information than the old-fashioned door-plate as to the ability of the man within to answer the question we ask. The author will answer the bell in person in his preface. Rider Haggard, for example, explains that in consequence of the Boer revolution of 1881 he was driven from the home he had made for himself in the Transvaal by what he regards as the fatal leniency of Mr. Gladstone's ministry; that his "History of the Transvaal," (New York, 1897) is in part a reprint of a book written in '82 when this bitter experience was fresh. There are not many survivors of that struggle, and few of those who do survive made records at the time. The book is of value as a contemporary's chronicle.

We pick up another book, Miss Mary H. Kingsley's "West African Studies." How shall we judge whether the author is a student in libraries or in the field? She produces her credentials and disarms the literary critics by her charming confession:

"I am not a literary man, only a student of West Africa. I find when I try to write like other people that I do not say what seems to me true, and thereby

lose all right to say anything, and I am now convinced, the more I know of West Africa—my education is continuous and unbroken by holidays—that it is a difficult thing to write about, particularly when you are a student, hampered on all sides by masses of inchoate material, unaided by a set of authors to whose opinions you can refer, and addressing a public that is not interested in the things that interest you so keenly."

What is the point of view of our author? The preface again answers. His "Break-up of China," Lord Beresford explains, is really a report dealing "mainly with trading and commercial questions relating to international, racial and political complications," the outcome of a mission confided to him by the president of the British Associated Chambers of Commerce. Clearly not a volume to be read beside the after-dinner fire, like Miss Alice Mabel Bacon's "Japanese Interior."

What is the attitude of the authors of the popular histories of English literature toward their work? Henry Morley in his "English Writers," (London, 1864) announces his purpose straightforwardly. "In these volumes I desire to convey certain impressions as to the influence exerted upon writers by the mind and fashions of the times in which they lived." The great French critic, Taine, claims that as a stranger he is "unconsciously struck by the principal characteristics and treats his subject with reference to them." He will treat the greatest writers only, for in their works "we may follow the change in tastes and the persistency in instincts." Jusserand, acknowledging himself as Taine's disciple, purposes to write not a "History of English Literature," but "A Literary History of the English People," in which "the ages during which the national thought expressed itself in language which was not the national one will not be left blank, as if for complete periods the inhabitants of this island had ceased to think at all." He indicates his sources delightfully, if with somewhat of prolixity:

"Dreamers will be followed, singers, tale-writers, and preachers wherever it pleases them to lead us: to the Walhalla of the North, to the green dale of Erin, to the Saxon church of Bradford-on-Avon, to Blackheath, to the 'Tabard' and the 'Mermaid,' to the 'Globe,' to 'Will's' coffee-houses, among ruined fortresses, to cloud-reaching steeples or along the furrows, sown to good intent by Piers the honest Plowman."

We suspect the Frenchman copied somewhat as to title and conception from John Richard Green, that sturdy-hearted Englishman who disdained to write a "drum-and-trumpet history," choosing rather a "History of the English *People*," from the inward compulsion "to find a place for figures little heeded in common history, the figures of the missionary, the poet, the painter, and the philosopher."

Sometimes it is the Table of Contents that reveals the scope of the book, as in Stopford A. Brooke's "English Literature." We glance down the page:

Chap. I. English Literature before the Norman Conquest, 670-1066.

Chap. II. From the Conquest to Chaucer's Death, 1066-1400."

on to

Chap. VIII. Poetry from 1732-1832,"

and conclude we have an outline history of English literature, in chronological order. A very full table of contents leaves the reader nothing more to ask in the way of index, if the pages of the sub-heads are given. One of the season's publications, "Shakespeare's Greenwood," by George Morley, shows its riches in the enumeration under "The Customs—The Mothering—The Easter Lifting—The Maying—the Shakespeare Maypole at Walford—The Beating of the Bounds—A Sprig of Rosemary" and other alluring sub-heads.

Occasionally the table of contents is the only index to the book's contents, as in Trevelyan's interesting life and letters of his famous uncle-historian, which has been cleverly characterized as giving "the Tom side of Macaulay." One always feels in this case, however, a sense of irritation, similar to that aroused in the heart of the inquirer who is told that he is perfectly welcome to the use of a penknife which he will find in the speaker's desk, "or else in one of the pockets of my blue jacket, or perhaps it's in my locker down at the boat-house." The "English Men of Letters" series sins in this respect, while the admirable "Epochs of American History" are models, with their lists of reference books, full tables of contents and very full indexes. More and more are authors considering the index as an integral part of their work. The index of Barrett Wendell's "Literary History of America" traces such subjects as "The South," "The Clergy of New England," "Plots in American Fiction," through a book of more than five hundred pages.

The numerous bibliographies found nowa-

days in books, in library bulletins, in magazines, such as THE CHAUTAUQUAN'S "Topics of the Hour," are cross-cuts blazed through many interlacing branches of information. Occasionally the reader—oh, joy!—stumbles on a cross-cut himself. Let him not trust his "find" to treacherous memory, but "make a note on 't." He may, by accumulation of such references, make a catalogue, a valuable training in the doing, and useful to himself and others when it is done. His references may be written in an Index Rerum,—an indexed blank-book—or on cards. The great disadvantage of a book-catalogue is that when the space allotted to one letter, the C's for instance, is full, these must be continued after the Z's, whereas a card can always be inserted without altering the alphabetical arrangement. The Library Bureau furnishes cards and portable tin boxes for holding them. The preliminary cost of cards and case is not great, though perhaps ingenuity may contrive a more economical home-made outfit. The most approved size of card is that adopted by the American Library Association, $7\frac{1}{2} \times 12\frac{1}{2}$ cm., with perpendicular as well as horizontal ruling, that the lines may be kept evenly indented.

HOW TO MAKE A CARD CATALOGUE.

Write the subject of your bibliography on the first line, close to the left-hand side. If it is an author, let the date of his birth and death follow his name as:

Milton, John. 1608-1674, A. D.

On the second and following lines write the list of books treating of his life and work, indenting them so that a rapid glance over the card will show the writers' names plainly. When one card does not suffice for a subject, write at the right-hand corner of the lower line "See next card," and at the right-hand upper corner of the next card, "Con," or "Continued."

The one advice to be given to the maker of a card catalogue is: Be accurate, *be accurate*, BE ACCURATE. Write always the place and date of publication, because the pagination often differs in different editions of the same book, or something is added to or omitted from one edition which is found in another, or for the purpose of the inquirer, the book may be valuable because of its age, or the reverse.

In referring to material found in periodicals, give always the volume number, or the month and year of publication. It is

often desirable to know the length of an article or section in a book, hence give always the numbers of the pages between which the topic is treated. Annotations are always helpful for future reference, and if at first it is hard to make them brief, practise will give facility. It will be well to make some general heads for the catalogue, but not to analyze too closely, for when too elaborate a scheme is undertaken the average reader is likely to let it drop after the evaporation of his first enthusiasm in beginning a new project. Under a country as a subject, *e. g.*, Russia, one might tentatively adopt the headings, History, Travel and Description, Literature. If the reader specializes under any of these heads, he can subdivide later, as, for example, under English Literature into periods, or under names of great authors, or if desired, these authors may appear in the catalogue where the initial letters of their names would place them, without regard to their country. The maker of the catalogue will soon devise a code of abbreviations for himself, which will save space on the card and time in writing. As the value of a book or article usually depends on its authorship, it is desirable to put the writer's name first when known. Specimen cards are submitted below:

Russia. History.

Ramnaud, Alf. History of R. from earliest times to '82. 3 v. N. Y., '79. [Authoritative—esp. good for early periods.]

Morfill, W. R. Story of R. Bost., '86. [Popular—chaps. on Customs and Literature.]

[See next card.

Russia. History.

Noble, Edm. R. and Russians. N. Y., 1900. [Con. chaps. on Nihilism—exile system—R.'s future.]

Krause, A. R. in Asia, 1558–1899. N. Y., '99.

[R.'s advance in Siberia, Persia, designs on India—in China—Conventions and treaties in appendix.] Quincy, Josiah. China and R. (In N. Amer. Rev., Oct. 1900.)

Norman, Henry. Great Siberian R. R. (In Scribn., Nov., 1900.)

Ozaki. Misunderstood Japan. (In N. Amer. Rev., Oct., 1900.) [No cause for friction between Japan and Russia.]

Russia. Travel and Description.

Ballou, M. M. Due North. Bost., '93.

Chaps. 12–17. [Chatty traveler's notes.]

Wallace, D. M. Russia. N. Y., '78. [Good maps—observation based on 6 yrs. in R.]

"Lanin, E. B." Russian Traits and Terrors. Bost., 1891. [Russian censure, pp. 256–268—finance, pp. 208–256.]

Rural Life in R. (In Leisure Hour, Oct., 1900.)

Creed's of R. (In Gent. Mag., Nov. 1900.)

Chinese Sports. (In Outing, Nov. 1900.)

Russia. Literature:

Ralston. R. Folk-tales. N. Y., 1873.

Hapgood, I. F. Russian Rambles. Bost., 1895. [2 chaps. on Tolstoi—personal interviews.]

Hapgood, I. F. Epic Songs of R. N. Y., '86.

Robinson, Mrs. T. A. L. v. J. Language and Lit. of the Slavic Nation. N. Y., 1850.

Otto, F. Hist. of Russian Lit. N. Y., '39.

Panin, Ivan. Lec. on Russian Lit. N. Y., 1873.

In these days of study clubs and associated altruistic endeavor, the possession of a list of short stories, of "suggested readings" for a Sunday-school class, of games for a girl's club, or references on Arbor day celebrations greatly lightens the leader's labor, while to conserve the gains from his own reading the student must make his own catalogue. Not to do so would be like cutting down the branches before him and casting them behind him to be stumbling-blocks in the path, instead of setting them up by the roadside as guide-posts so that he who reads may not stumble, nor creep, but run.

WASHINGTON.

From youth, great stores of wealth were centered in
This man: Ambition, wisdom, excellence;
Augmenting which was this,—a loving sense
Of justice. Thus, 'twas when the cruel sin
Of Oppression thrust its seething grip upon
The youthful form of Destiny, and from
A thousand patriot hills—where none was dumb—
The cry of "Liberty" rang out, this one
Of modest soul, heroic mold, and faith
Unalterable, at Duty's call, with sword
Unsheathed, through misty fields of waiting death
His kinsmen led to Victory in the Lord.
Then, called to chair of State, he nobly bore
The rule, and, dying, left fame evermore.

—George Newell Lovejoy.



The RIVALRY of NATIONS

WORLD POLITICS OF TODAY

By Edwin A. Start

Summary of Preceding Chapters.

[Chapters I.-IV. appeared in the October issue. The first was an introductory discussion of the significance of the present age, the expansion of the nations, the industrial revolution, the growth of democracy, and the world problems resulting from the interplay of these elements. Chapter II. explained the politics of Europe in the middle of the century, as turning upon the ideas of nationality and the revolutionary democracy; with the Eastern question as shaped in the Crimean war. In Chapters III. and IV. the development of England and France respectively in the last half century were traced, with especial reference to the rise of English democracy and the growth of republican government in France.]

[Chapters V.-VIII. in the November number considered in a similar way the other four great powers of Europe, Germany, Italy, Austria-Hungary, and Russia.]

[Chapters IX.-XI. in the December number dealt with the question of the near East. Chapter IX. described the reopening of the Eastern question after 1871, explaining the relations of Russia and Turkey and the status of the Turkish empire and the Balkan and Danubian provinces. Chapter X. discussed the developments from 1871 to the Russo-Turkish war of 1877-78, the results of the war and the treaty of San Stefano, and Chapter XI. the resettlement of the Eastern question by the Congress of Berlin, the resulting conditions, and the effect upon Russian policy.]

[In the January number Chapter XII. discussed the consequences of the Congress of Berlin in the Balkan peninsula; Chapter XIII. considered Egypt as a factor in the Eastern question, and the British control; Chapter XIV. was a general introduction to the subject of Colonial Expansion; and Chapter XV., on "Imperial England," began an examination of the characteristics, methods, and extent of the colonial activity of the different European powers.]

Required Reading for the Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle.

CHAPTER XVI.

GROWTH OF THE BRITISH IMPERIAL CONCEPTION.



IN the preceding chapter the growth of the British colonial empire was outlined and some of the characteristics of its principal divisions, the great self-governing colonies, were briefly described; but of the teeming millions who today live under some form of British administration, only about ten millions are included in this division. The remaining three hundred and sixty millions outside the United Kingdom are found very largely in tropical or sub-tropical regions, which are for the most part administered as crown colonies, or by chartered companies. These colonies and protectorates are distinct in character from such true colonies as Canada and Australia. In the latter, society is democratic, progressive, self-reliant, endowed with the real English spirit of independence. The former are for the most part inhabited by races physically, intellectually, or politically inferior, and are situated in territories which are not conducive in their climate or physical conditions to the best life of races born and reared in the temperate zones. The crown colonies are administered by governors appointed by the English government, assisted by colonial councils composed of English, and sometimes in part of native, officials and in many of the more intelligent colonies by legislative assemblies with limited powers. In all these cases, however, the final control of affairs is in the hands of the imperial government. Many of these crown colonies, like Ceylon and the Straits Settlements, present examples of brilliant success in colonial administration. Some have not been so well administered, but the general record of British colonial administration is creditable to the English people and forms one of the most important chapters in the history of civilization.

Of the crown colonies the greatest is India, which differs from the

A distinctive tropical type.



SCENE NEAR
COLOMBO, CEYLON.

ordinary crown colonies only in size; but this difference in size is so great that it amounts, as has been pointed out in a very intelligent discussion of England's colonial system,¹ to a distinct difference in kind. Indeed, the relation of India to England is unique in the history of the world. An immense territory, seemingly made for the home of one nationality, India has been for ages the home of many peoples and of many religions, and the seat of many states. The lack of political cohesion among its peoples made them the easy conquest, first of the commerce and then of the arms, of the aggressive western power which became entangled in Indian affairs during the great struggles of the eighteenth century with France for commercial supremacy. Administered for a century by the East India Company, this wide domain, with its vast wealth and resources, and its people of unknown antiquity, was taken under the care of the British crown in 1858, and is, so far as the form of its political organization goes, a crown colony. It is, however, to this division of the British possessions that the term empire is properly applied. India is a true empire in extent, and its system of government is imperial. It is a monarchy by statutory enactment of the British parliament. Its affairs are conducted by a bureaucracy which, while officered by men of training and ability and, in general, of devotion to the public service, tends to become more and more a machine, and like any such system lacks sympathetic touch with the people. Of England's right in India there can be no question. She has none. Of the advantages of British rule in India, more may be said. There is an argument on both sides, which it is not necessary to enter into for the purpose of this discussion. It is the relation of India to the British empire as a world power that concerns us. As an investment it is doubtful if India has been a source of profit to England. It involves a large military expenditure; it costs every year much in lives and money to maintain the British power and to develop the country. India is chiefly valuable, if value it has, because of its strategic importance as the heart of the British East. Around the coasts of the eastern seas, England possesses many important detached

A crown colony that
is an empire.

Administration.

Problems of India.

¹ Cotton and Payne, "Colonies and Dependencies," p. 2.

and scattered depots for her great commercial interests. India forms a base of operations that commands the eastern situation. In the present state of the world's affairs it is doubtful if India can be spared to the empire and, whatever may be thought of the right or the wisdom of England's original entrance into India, it has now undertaken too great responsibilities there, and gone too far to retire without completing its work, which is, if it is anything, the fusion of western and eastern civilization in that part of the world. With all this, India and the defense of India are a constant source of anxiety to the British government, and will probably remain so to the end, whatever that end may be.

Protectorates and chartered companies.

The English protectorates, with the exception of that in North Borneo, are located in Africa, where they come in contact with similar protectorates and spheres of influence of the other European powers which are engaged in the exploitation of the Dark Continent. Their relation to

international affairs will be treated in that connection. The great chartered companies, private enterprises operated under royal charter, chiefly for commercial purposes, but necessarily carrying with them many political functions, have from the beginning of English colonization played a considerable part in the development of English possessions, but they cannot be said to have been attended with great success in recent



A CINGALESE BOAT.

times. As a rule, the cost and trouble attending the opening of new colonies by chartered companies has been greater than if the government had assumed the responsibility in the beginning, as it has always had to do in the end. Of the chartered companies, the East India Company was the greatest; and its failure, in spite of the many able men in its service, to administer India successfully, caused the taking over of that empire by the government. At present there are four chartered companies in the field,—the British North Borneo Company and the three African companies.

An unconscious growth.

This extensive empire or colonial system, the greatest that the world has ever known, not only in extent but in its consequences to civilization in the world at large, is, as has been said, an almost unconscious growth. Indeed, it has been carried through many of its stages by the English people unwillingly, in an almost sullen resistance to what has seemed to be the national destiny. During the first ninety years of the nineteenth century the opposition to the colonial policy in England was strong, able, and outspoken. After 1880 the revival of interest in colonial enterprises among England's continental rivals, particularly France and Germany, called attention to the real significance of this great movement, which had been in progress for almost three centuries. Then English statesmen began to study the work that had been done, the results of empire and its responsibilities. When France and Germany declared openly that a policy of colonial expansion was essential to their continued well-being, it was an easy deduction that if France and Germany needed colonial expansion, England, with its far more contracted area and its rapidly growing population, must be increasingly dependent upon that Greater Britain which furnishes opportunity for the enterprise of its sons, homes for its crowding people, and must be relied on in the international rivalries of the future to assist in maintaining by arms or by the influence of its self-centered strength the welfare of the Anglo-Saxon race and

New interest in colonies.

Continental examples.

the social and political ideas for which it stands throughout the world.

In the history of the world the present conception of colonies never appeared until recently. The Greek colonies were separate from the mother cities from the beginning, having an independent and sometimes hostile political existence. The English colonies until the American Revolution were regarded rather as investments or business enterprises for the benefit of the mother country than as extensions of its life and activity. As such they were to be held by force if necessary, and this was attempted in the case of the revolted colonies in North America. Only a few of the great Englishmen of that day realized the true significance of that struggle. They knew that in alienating the colonies England was alienating a part of herself. After the



A new colonial conception.

INDIA—GROUP OF HINDUS, MAHRATTA CASTE.

Revolution Englishmen seemed to have settled for a century into a kind of fatalistic idea that separation was the ultimate goal of all the English colonies, that the course followed by the united colonies in North America would be followed by others as occasion arose. We find this view appearing in speeches and writings of Englishmen all along the century. Sir John Seeley, however, in the early eighties, when the new colonial spirit which he did so much to develop was coming into being, pointed out very clearly the error in this conception. He wrote:

"The great causes of division, oceans and religious disabilities, have ceased to operate. Vast uniting forces have begun to work, trade and emigration. Meanwhile the natural ties which unite Englishmen resume their influence as soon as the counteracting pressure is removed—I mean the ties of nationality, language, and religion. The mother country, having once for all ceased to be a stepmother and to make unjust claims and impose annoying restrictions, and since she wants her colonies as an outlet both for population and trade, and since on the other hand the colonies must feel that there is risk, not to say also intellectual impoverishment, in independence, since finally intercourse is ever increasing and no alienating force at work to counteract it, but the discords created by the old system pass more and more into oblivion, it seems possible that our colonial empire, so called, may more and more deserve to be called Greater Britain and that the tie may become stronger and stronger."

Sir John Seeley's statement of the new doctrine.



INDIA—GROUP OF BRAHMINS, FARBU CASTE.

This was the enunciation of a new principle in regard to the relation of colonies and the mother country. It was the product of the centuries of British colonial experience. Its distinguished advocate reinforced his argument by citing the United States as "the most

striking example of confident and successful expansion." He pointed out the fact that the United States had not permitted a part of the federal body to secede, but had maintained the union at immense cost of blood and treasure. By implication we may suppose that the unity of the British empire as at present constituted was supposed to be equally important to

* Seeley, "Expansion of England," p. 297.



"ELEPHANTS A
PILIN' TEAK"—
BURMA.

large measure of independence which they now possess than they would be if bound by closer political ties to the mother country. This class of statesmen regards the ties of nature and of self-interest as a surer bond between the people of English race the world over than an artificial political union. The commercial interests of the colonies and of England are closely bound together; the colonies, strong as they are, are very dependent upon the English navy in case of any difference with a foreign power; and these conditions, particularly the latter, must necessarily hold for some time to come.

The theory of
natural union.

In these comments upon imperial unity, the true colonies, those that are largely settled by people of English race, are alone considered. The recent events connected with the war in South Africa have shown how close are the ties between the Australasian and Canadian colonies and England. With the vast tropical and sub-tropical possessions of England, inhabited by people alien in race, in habit, and in religion, the same facts do not hold. They are primarily held by superior force. Ultimately, because of their large population, because they are so scattered, because they offer so many vulnerable points of attack for England's rivals, their continued allegiance and service must be secured by an administration which will win their willing support. This with many of these peoples is not a difficult thing, since their spirit of political independence and their sense of nationality is not in many cases like that of the European races. They may be won and held by a government which offers them sufficiently attractive conditions of life. The oriental peoples have been accustomed for ages to the absolute rule of conquerors, more or less humane. To them the British rule is obnoxious only when it runs counter to long-established religious or race prejudices and customs. When these are duly respected, the British rule and the security that goes with it are very likely to be gratefully accepted. This is not true of all peoples under the British influence, by any means, but it applies to millions in British Asia and Africa. As between Great Britain and any rival European power they are quite likely to support the former, which recognizes always and everywhere some rights of men which are appreciated by every race.

Relation of the
tropical colonies to
the empire.

CHAPTER XVII.

GERMAN COLONIAL POLICY.

Source of the German colonial policy.

The birth of the new Germany caused a widening and multiplying of national activities, bringing into play the vigorous qualities of the Germanic race. The industries of the country sought markets for their products, and from this cause arose a few years after the Franco-Prussian war the new colonial policy which has since been developed with remarkable consistency and energy. The beginnings of this colonial policy, like those of all the great policies of the new Germany, were due to Bismarck, and came solely from his intense nationalism. He was an opponent, repeatedly avowed, of colonialism as ordinarily regarded. His own testimony upon this point is clear and interesting. In the Reichstag on the 26th of June, 1884, Bismarck explained the beginning of the colonial movement and then declared his aversion to colonies —

Bismarck's attitude.

"which make a strip of land their foundation and then seek to draw emigrants, appoint officials, and establish garrisons. This mode of colonization may be good for other countries, but is not practicable for us. I do not believe that colonial projects can be artificially established and all the examples which Deputy Bamberger advanced as warnings in committee were cases in which the wrong way had been taken: where people had wished to construct harbors where there was no traffic and build towns where there were no people, the intention being to attract people by artificial means to the place. Very different is the question whether it is expedient, and whether it is the duty of the German empire, to grant imperial protection and a certain amount of support in their colonial endeavors to those of its subjects who devote themselves to such undertakings, relying upon the protection of the empire in order that security may be insured in foreign lands to the communities which grow naturally out of the superfluous strength of the German body politic. This question I answer affirmatively. I certainly do so less reservedly from the standpoint of expediency, though from the standpoint of the state's duty, I do so unconditionally. . . . My intention, as approved by the emperor, is to leave responsibility for the material development of a colony, as well as its inauguration, to the action and enterprise of our sea-faring and trading citizens, and to proceed less on the system of annexing the trans-oceanic provinces to the German empire than that of granting charters, after the form of the English royal charters, encouraged by the glorious career which the English merchants experienced in the foundation of the East India Company; also to leave to persons interested in the colony the government of the same, only granting them European jurisdiction for Europeans, and so much protection as we may be able to afford without maintaining garrisons. . . . It is not our intention to found provinces but commercial undertakings."

His speech of June, 1884.

I have quoted thus at length from this speech of the great chancellor because it seems to set forth so clearly the form which the colonial idea took at the outset in the minds of the guiding spirits of the empire, and the basis upon which later modifications have been built. The general policy of Germany, foreign and domestic, ever since the founding of the new empire, has been directed to the maintenance and development of industry and trade. Import duties have been levied to protect home trade. The consular system has been organized with a care and degree of efficiency that is perhaps equalled by no other nation, and the policy of making favorable commercial treaties in connection with German trade with foreign countries has been carefully studied and carried out. The imperial law relating to the consular system of the empire declares it to be the duty of consuls "to protect and to promote the interests of the empire, especially in regard to trade, commerce, and navigation, as far as possible." The German colonial system has been simply one phase of this careful and scientific development of German trade and industry, its real basis being the material interest of the newly found German nationality. The idea of political expansion was not a part of the German colonial scheme at the beginning, and has only a subordinate place in it at the present time, although, as will be shown, the very conservative idea of Bismarck has been modified materially by the more wide-reaching ambitions of Emperor William II., who is the dominating spirit of German policy at the present time. It is also worthy of remembrance,

No conscious idea of political expansion.

in connection with Bismarck's use of the British East India Company as an example to be followed, that the East India Company was compelled, by circumstances that its commercial activities created, to become a political body, and that this finally resulted in its turning over to the British crown the empire it had won. Perhaps these harmless German companies that have been chartered in imitation of the great British corporation may bear watching.

The first, and throughout his public life the principal, care of Bismarck was the unification of Germany, the complete organization of German nationality. The first phase closed with the successful termination of the war with France and the declaration of the empire. Then the chancellor turned his attention to clericalism in the state and until 1878 was involved in the *Kulturkampf*.¹ After the not wholly successful termination of that struggle, with the unerring sense of the real issue of the hour, which was one of the most marked characteristics of Bismarck's statesmanship, he gave his attention to the great social and industrial questions which have shaped nineteenth-century history to so great an extent. His general policy was to crush the Socialists as a political party, and then to give to the needs of the working masses that care which would make socialistic agitation unnecessary, and which, he always held, the state owed to its weaker members. This was identically the policy of Richelieu towards the Huguenots of France. It is a strong policy for any great statesman in dealing with a troublesome party, which yet has a foundation of right.

Emigration was giving great anxiety in Germany. Bismarck held that lack of employment was the great cause of emigration, that the stimulation of manufactures and the consequent demand for labor would hold Germans within the Fatherland, and therefore he advocated a protective tariff.

He never regarded the tariff as an automatic preserver of economic vigor, as it is often regarded in the United States. It was to him one part of a large policy, of which the securing of new markets for German trade was an equally important adjunct. In all this we have the key to the seizure in 1884 of stations upon the coast of Africa, and of certain Pacific islands. In pursuance of the same policy of furthering the growing German interests in Africa it became necessary to counteract the Portuguese claims in the Dark Continent, and to take a hand in the Congo question, which had been opened by King Leopold of Belgium in the interest of his International Congo Association. In this, as in the settlement of the Eastern question six years before, Germany took the initiative, arranging an international conference at Berlin in 1884-85, which brought about the recognition of the Congo Free State, confined Portugal within definite boundaries and formed the basis for the partition of Africa, which has been going on since the conference by successive agreements between the interested powers. Bismarck also wished to develop by heavy subsidies great German steamship lines for communication with Africa, Australia, and Asia. In this he met with much opposition from the Reichstag, and his proposition obtained only gradual

Bismarck's primary interest German unification.



GERMAN MARINES
IN CHINA.

(From "Schantung und
Deutsch-China," by
Kunst von Henne-Warieg,
J. J. Weber, Leipzig.)

Outward growth of
German activities.

¹ See Chapter V.



acceptance, but the policy has accomplished the desired result, and German carrying trade has developed wonderfully. A law of 1885 subsidized mail steamship lines to East Asia and Australasia for fifteen years, at one million dollars a year.

What an expanding commercial policy involves.

Throughout the years of this development, up to the time of his retirement, Bismarck continued to reiterate his skepticism regarding a colonial policy and his unwillingness to have anything to do with such a colonial system involving political action. And yet he was himself forced to intervene more thoroughly and frequently than he had originally intended, in order to keep his promise to defend German citizens and legitimate German interests, and it soon became evident that entrance into competition for the trade of those parts of the world not possessing stable

and civilized governments means, in this age of commercial rivalries, the raising of international questions of the utmost importance to the world's peace and to the honor and interests of the peoples concerned.

When Emperor William II. dismissed his great minister and entered upon his remarkable career of personal rule, his grandiloquent imperialism built upon the basis previously



A GROUP OF GIRLS IN
"DEUTSCH-CHINA."
(From "Sehansung und
Deutsch-China.")

New applications of old principles.

laid a superstructure which embodied an entirely natural evolution of the principles already established. Still carrying out the idea of a strictly commercial expansion, based upon the spirit and needs of German nationality, outlets have been sought for German capital, labor and products wherever openings appeared. The result has been the extensive diffusion of German interests in Africa, in Syria and Asia Minor, in China, and in Central and South America. Letting politics alone, the German merchant, farmer, or capitalist, sure of the support and encouragement of his government and confident of that government's strength and power, has gone steadily about his work, selling goods, securing concessions, building railways, cultivating the soil, or working mines, and always gaining a strong hold upon the confidence of the people among whom he labors by his capacity for minding his own business. The German bureaucrat or officer is frequently a very uncomfortable person to get along with, but the unofficial German makes his way with alien peoples better than Frenchman, Englishman, or American.

The German colonies.

This process has not built up strong colonies. The possessions and protectorates of Germany are not in regions favorable to colonization by the white race, but German interests have extended in so many directions as to make international complications in the future entirely possible; for the German government has made it perfectly clear that it will carry to the fullest extent the modern doctrine of protection by the state of its citizens, not only in person but in all vested interests. The German industrial colonies and the hundreds of millions of German capital invested in South and Central America may bring about a collision with the Monroe

Germany in Asia
Minor and South
America.

doctrine. Germany's possession of Kiau-Chau and its railway and mining concessions in Shangtung province and the Yellow river region of China make it one of the active powers in the critical storm center of the East. The emperor has for several years encouraged German settlement and activity in Syria and Asia Minor, in the loosely held dominions of the sultan. Here, among the ruins of one of the oldest of civilizations, an active development of the resources of a naturally rich country is going on, and it is very largely in German hands. For this, William II. cultivates the friendship of the Porte, throwing aside entirely the dictum of Bismarck, in 1876, that there were in the whole oriental controversy "no German interests involved that would be worth the sound bones of a single Pomeranian musketeer." Germans



CHINESE COAL MINERS, EMPLOYED IN SHANGTUNG BY GERMAN OPERATORS. (From "Schantung und Deutsch-China.")

are building the railroad from Constantinople to Bagdad, with its important connections. When Africa is opened by the Cape to Cairo railway which Cecil Rhodes has projected and will yet see accomplished; when the great southern trans-Asiatic line across India from Alexandria to Shanghai is completed, and Europe, Asia, and Africa are bound together as never before; then the far-sighted Germans hope to be so strongly entrenched commercially and industrially that they will be the controlling factor at the ancient cross-roads of three continents, which will acquire in the twentieth century a new importance, greater than it ever possessed in its thousands of years of history. For your true German is not only thorough and businesslike, — he is an idealist, looking beyond the immediate present.

The ancient cross-roads of the world.

The colonies and dependencies of Germany now include in Africa an estimated area of 930,760 square miles, acquired between 1884 and 1890, with a population, also estimated, of 14,200,000; in Asia, 200 square miles, acquired in 1897, with a population of 60,000; and in the Pacific, acquired between 1885 and 1899, island territories aggregating 96,160 square

German dependencies summarized.



THE FIRST GERMAN VISITORS TO THE CLOISTER AT HIA HUNG LIEN, CHINA. (From "Schantung und Deutsch-China.")

miles, with a population of 427,000. The even more important German activities in southwestern Asia and South America, having no political connection with the empire, can make no showing in such a summary. Their present importance is industrial, their future political significance problematical. The German method of administration is in general that

Taking of
Kiau-Chau.

of the crown colony, governed by an imperial governor or commissioner. As much as possible is left to the chartered commercial and colonization companies, of which there are many of importance, with a wide sphere of action. Kiau-Chau is in the hands of the navy department.

The seizure of Kiau-Chau is typical of the summary character of the German emperor's methods in carrying out his policy. Germany had been seeking to become the protector of all Catholic Christians in the East. A German bishop in China formally placed his missions under German protection. Two of his priests were murdered. For this Germany exacted from China a port and two hundred square miles of territory in the rich province of Shantung, adjacent to valuable coal mines. In the settlement growing out of the war between China and Japan Germany united with Russia and France in assisting China, and thereby obtained a strong influence at the Chinese court, and a good understanding with Russia. Since the recent tragic outbreak disturbed all previous combinations and adjustments, Germany has attempted to play in China the same rôle of initiator and leader that Bismarck assumed for it in Europe.

Principles and
tendencies.

It is not difficult, from this survey, to summarize the principles and tendencies of Germany's colonial policy. Its primary aim is a full opportunity for German capital and labor in the world field. It is, therefore, consciously a commercial policy, but circumstances may transform it into a political system, for with it goes the care of Germany for every German and all that is his. A great merchant marine, equal to all the demands of German commerce, is a part of the plan, and a navy adequate to the protection of German interests in any part of the world against any probable combination of rival powers. An intelligent policy of commercial treaties or differential tariffs is another of the means to attain the end, in seeking which old enmities, like that with France, will be put aside if need be. Germany recognizes today but three rival powers — Russia, Great Britain, and the United States — and looks toward a possible commercial union of western Europe under German leadership to meet their competition.

Germany best
served by peace.

One more point is of the utmost importance in its bearing upon the great international rivalries of today. Germany's real interest in carrying out her great policy is peace, not war. Her ends are to be gained by peaceful industrial conquest; they will be endangered by any great wars. Therefore Germany is not likely to lead the way into war; although no state is better prepared for combat, and it is equally certain that she would not be slow to respond to a challenge to her national pride or interest. Even a war of tariffs would be unfavorable to Germany's present ambitions. Her hopes rest in a good understanding commercially as well as politically between the nations. Under ordinary conditions it may be assumed that these considerations will have their proper weight and guide German governmental action, for there is no government that is controlled to a greater extent by well-reasoned understanding of world conditions. The increasing personal power of the kaiser, who has already subordinated the other agencies of the government to himself, and summoned the German people to "stand united behind their prince and ruler," following his leadership and rendering him unquestioning support,¹ introduces an unknown quantity into the equation, for the unchecked ambition of a personal ruler of great power sometimes goes to unexpected lengths. William has been singularly successful thus far in destroying efficient party opposition and carrying the empire with him. Whether he could do this if he launched into projects imperiling peace and involving Germany in a contest which could hardly have any result favorable to its economic development is a question that cannot be answered.

¹Speech at Hamburg, October 19, 1899.

CHAPTER XVIII.

FRENCH COLONIZATION.

There have been two distinct epochs of French colonial activity. The earlier, associated with the discovery of the new world and the eastward route to the Indies, occupied the seventeenth and the first half of the eighteenth century; the second is of very recent origin, having been entered upon practically since 1880, although there were some earlier colonial establishments to which no systematic policy was addressed. Between these two colonial epochs there is no historical or logical connection, except that certain small and comparatively unimportant districts and islands in Asia, Africa, and America have remained in French possession from the earlier period. In general, French colonization has not been attended with marked success. The policy of France in its periods of activity has been brilliant, bold and ambitious, but has not rested upon a substantial foundation like the colonial growth of Great Britain, or the systematic commercial expansion of Germany. The importance of well-developed national spirit to a successful colonial policy has been referred to. In this respect English colonization has been at a great advantage as compared with that of France, in that it has rested either intentionally or unconsciously upon individual enterprise and initiative. This quality, so well developed in the English race, is more

The two epochs of French colonial activity.

Weakness of the French as colonizers.



AFRICAN TYPES—
ARMED RICHARIS
FROM THE SUDAN.

or less lacking in the French, or when present is overshadowed by the tendency to excessive paternalism on the part of the government. The German colonies are also in a sense managed by the government, but this is always with reference to the interests of the private trading companies, to which are left all functions not strictly political. Bureaucratic administration is not allowed to hamper the activity of the German traders for whom colonies are maintained. On the other hand, the official element is, in some of the French colonies, the dominating influence and conducts the colony for politics and the interest of the officeholders. Furthermore, the Germans have had powerful and intelligent guidance in their colonial development, that of Bismarck and of the present emperor. The French have been subject to shifting ministries and disorganized parties. Like all French public affairs, the administration of the colonies has been a matter of experiment rather than of any well-defined policy. Here again an interesting comparison may be made between the two nations. The Germans, idealistic, and given to sentiment in their individual thinking, are exceedingly practical and hard headed in public affairs. The French, individually thrifty, conservative, and practical, are given to hare-brained enterprises and reckless experiments in public matters. The primary object of colonization by France at the present day is the same as that of other modern states,—the extension of the field for its commercial activity. We find this very clearly expressed in a speech of the governor of Indo-China, delivered in 1899 before the Rouen Chamber of Commerce. The governor declared that the creation and increase of a market in the colony for the manufactured products of France was the colony's *raison d'être*. As a very practical application

The object commercial opportunity and national glory.

of this idea the governor explained the significance of a request made by him for a loan of 200,000,000 francs to improve his colony. Said he:

"It must not be imagined that the two hundred million francs will be taken away from France, nor that the loan will be like so much money withdrawn from circulation, for more than two-thirds will be expended in nursing French industries. Your foundries will send us iron for bridges and buildings; your rolling-mills, rails; your forests, sleepers; your car-

shops, rolling stock; your quarries, slate; your hills, cement; all these will be carried to the Orient by French ships, giving employment to French people."

The loan, it is interesting to note, was granted, the proceeds to be used exclusively for the construction of railways, all the material not obtainable in Indo-China to be purchased of French merchants and carried in



A MADAGASCAR VILLAGE.

(From The Illustrated London News, Aug. 24, 1895.)

French vessels. Many other examples might be given in the management of French Indo-China, showing the thoroughness with which the French apply the commercial theory to their Asiatic colonies. It is, indeed, upon the necessity of colonies for commercial expansion that the re-awakened interest in the subject in France rests. More than in England or Germany, however, there is present in France the dream of political expansion, of the revival of France as a great imperial power. This thought appeals forcibly to the French imagination.

This new interest appeared in the early eighties, at the same time with the beginning of activity along the same lines in Germany. Indeed, it was coincident with a change in colonial policy on the part of most of the continental powers, following the Congress of Berlin in 1878. France was recovering from the depression caused by its terrible defeat in the Franco-Prussian war, and its internal struggle with the commune. The republic was establishing itself upon a surer basis, and sought, as every French government must seek, to appeal to the patriotism of the people and their love of national glory. It was very natural under such conditions that Frenchmen of larger ideas should be aroused by visions of a greater France. In 1882 Leroy-Beaulieu, the economist, asserted that "colonial expansion must occupy the first place in our national consciousness." He declared that a great French empire must be founded in Asia and Africa, or France would sink to the level of a second-rate power, and that "colonization is a question of life or death for France." When we remember that the long struggle of a century and a half with England was really a struggle over territorial extension, the significance of these declarations by an eminent French scholar can be readily seen.

France now possesses in India five towns, with the surrounding territory, aggregating 197 square miles and having a population of 279,091. These are the remnants of that structure which the genius of Dupleix would have erected into a French Indian empire had he been better supported and more favored by circumstances. The important Asiatic colonies of France are on the eastern and southern sides of the great eastern peninsula, of which the independent kingdom of Siam occupies the central portion and British Burma the western. They comprise on the north Tongking and Laos, wrung from China by hard fighting between 1884 and 1893; the coast country of Annam, made a French protectorate

New interest in colonies.

French dependencies summarized.

by the treaty of 1884, ratified in 1886; Cochin-China, acquired in 1861, and Cambodia, north of it, acquired in the following year. These dependencies, with a united area of about 263,000 square miles, and an aggregate population estimated at 22,400,000, have been incorporated for administrative purposes under a governor-general. Their united designation is French Indo-China. The population is made up of various eastern Asiatic races, chiefly Mongoloid. Cochin-China is represented by a deputy in the French assembly. French Indo-China occupies a commanding place in the eastern seas. It has been said that the nation that controlled Saigon, the capital of Cochin-China, would command the strategic and commercial situation in the East, but France has not succeeded in justifying this promise as yet. The largest body of French possessions, and that from which the French today seem to hope for the greatest results, is in Africa. The African territories include Algeria, Tunisia, French Sahara, Senegal, a part of the Sudan, French Guinea, the Ivory Coast, Dahomey, Somali Coast, Madagascar, Réunion, and a few smaller islands,—the total area being 3,320,488 square miles, and the estimated population 33,257,010. Of these territories, Algeria, acquired by conquest in 1830 from the Dey of Algeria, in the process of collection of some bad debts to French merchants, and Tunisia, over which a protectorate was assumed in 1881, are not rated as colonies. Algeria is administered by a civil governor-general, but is incorporated as a part of France, the French Chambers having the sole right of legislation for it. It sends three senators and six deputies to the national assembly. Tunisia is a charge of the foreign office. The remaining territories in Africa are administered by governors or commissioners, generally assisted by administrative councils, the plan adopted for the administration of all but three or four of the French colonies. French interest in some of these territories dates back beyond the beginnings of the present colonial movement, as in the case of Senegal and Réunion, which were acquired by France in the seventeenth century. Madagascar, now regarded as one of the promising French colonies, has claimed the interest of France since 1642, when pretensions of French sovereignty in the island were made, but there was no effective action until the war against the Hovas, the dominant native tribe, between 1882 and 1884. A French protectorate was recognized by Great Britain in 1890, but denied by the native government. In 1896 Madagascar became French territory after force had been brought to bear upon the resisting natives. If

Asia.

Africa.



MADAGASCAR
VILLAGE FOLK.
(From The Illustrated London News, Aug. 24, 1895.)

we accept the judgment of the eminent French publicist Lebon, the affairs of Madagascar have not been well managed, being subject to the same faults which have been prominent through the whole of the colonial history of France. He criticizes the French government for not knowing how to follow great military sacrifices with the development of public works.¹



¹ *Revue des Deux Mondes*, June, 1900.

THE RIVALRY OF NATIONS.

110
Algeria the French
base in Africa.

An examination of a recent map of Africa will show that the great body of French territories has Algeria for a base. This country, the French right to which is now unquestioned, France is organizing upon European principles as rapidly as circumstances will allow. From it the new ambitions of France have led the government to reach out across the desert to seek connection with the west coast territories remaining in French control from the earlier colonial period, and to acquire, if possible, an influence in the Congo country, and on the headwaters of the Nile, in the vaguely defined region known as the Sudan, to which well-informed students of the African situation ascribe a commanding strategic position in the immediate future of the Dark Continent.

America.

In addition to its Asiatic and African colonies, which constitute its main interest at present, France still retains in America certain remnants of its seventeenth-century acquisitions. Of these the largest territory is that of French Guiana, 46,850 square miles, with a population of only 22,710. In addition to this are the islands of Guadaloupe and Martinique, in the West Indies, and St. Pierre and Miquelon, off the coast of Newfoundland. The small islands last mentioned, with an area of 93 square miles and a population of 6,250, principally Norman and Breton fishermen, would seem to be of small political importance, but they are the center of the Newfoundland fisheries question, which has been regarded by the best informed French and English authorities as more likely to produce war between France and England than any of the African or Asiatic relations of these two countries. France also holds in New Caledonia and certain Pacific islands 9,220 square miles of territory, with a population of 82,000. New Caledonia and its dependencies form a penal colony, administered by a governor with a privy council, an elective consul-general, and a full civil organization. New Caledonia and its dependencies have valuable resources, and the experiment of penal colonization has been attended with a considerable measure of success. The chief foundation for its prosperity is found in its nickel mines and coffee plantations. The principal

The penal colonies
and Pacific islands.

SOME FRENCH SUB-
JECTS—ALGERIAN
BISKRA.



French colonies in
international
relations.

Pacific island groups held by France are the Society, the Windward, Gambia, Tuamotu, and Marquesas Islands, with some others less important.

With the exception of St. Pierre and Miquelon, the Asiatic and African colonies of France are the only ones which are likely to contribute in any important measure to any conflict with rival powers. In Asia, France cannot be said to have developed any distinctive international policy of its own. It has been content to play the part of ally of Russia, counting upon the advance of that country and upon favorable alliance with it to give it vantage-ground in any settlement that may arise out of the complications in the Orient. A recent French writer¹ has called attention to the important part played by the French bureaucracy in developing French policy. Government office, even at small compensation, is highly

¹M. Martin in the *Nouvelle Revue*, August, 1900.

valued by the average Frenchman, and to maintain its hold upon the people and gratify the national love of public office a vast number of minor administrative offices have been created, the distribution of which gives the republic a strong hold upon the people. This system is carried to a greater extent in the colonies than at home. M. Martin gives as an illustration Cochin-China, where there are three thousand resident Frenchmen, women and children. Of the men, seventeen hundred are civil servants, and are able to carry a solid vote and practically fix their own salaries. The influence of such an intrenched official body as this on colonial policy in the way of developing bureaucratic administration, creating red-tape, and smothering independent action, can readily be understood by any one who is familiar with the working of a highly developed bureau system in government.

Bureaucracy in the colonies.

CHAPTER XIX.

THE EXPANSION OF RUSSIA.

Of all the states of Europe, Russia has pursued for three centuries the simplest and most consistent policy — a policy which it seems absolutely impossible to misunderstand; and yet Russia is apparently regarded in many quarters as the sphinx among nations. Its movements have given rise to a great body of controversial literature, in which the writers claim to know from personal observation that the White Bear has paws of velvet and harmless teeth, or that his claws are steel and his teeth are sharpened to kill. The doubt in the minds of the uninitiated as to Russia's real aims, and the sharp difference of opinion among those who think they know, are probably due to three causes. The vast interior of Asia, in which Russia's operations have been chiefly carried on for the last quarter century, is a land of mystery from which the veil is only lifted occasionally by the disconnected accounts of some curious traveler. What has been going on there is little known and less understood, and few who hear of this or that movement to a new and more advanced position, where the geography is so slightly known, connect it with the carrying out of a great historic movement of national expansion. In the second place, while the Russian policy is clear and simple, its diplomatic methods, the result of its strange national history, are characterized by oriental astuteness, which frequently deceives the western mind. Not only have Asiatic elements so mingled with Russian life as to give it an oriental cast, but the necessities of Russian state policy in dealing with so many oriental peoples have trained Russian officials in those methods of which the Asiatics are past masters, but which seem very much like double dealing to the westerner. The third difficulty in the way of understanding Russia lies in our proneness to overlook one important fact in a great absolute monarchy. In the machinery of a democracy the official individual usually becomes more or less a part of the machine, subject to its methodical working; but the personal ruler of a great empire necessarily entrusts large powers to the officers whom he places in charge of different parts of his realms and of the administrative machinery. It has been inevitable in all great empires that such officers on distant frontiers, held strictly to account for the success of their administration, but removed from imperial surveillance, arrogate to themselves considerable powers of independent initiative when faced by emergencies, or when they see opportunity for carrying out what they deem good policy. The government must support them in order to maintain respect for its authority and its officers, and so it is often drawn into a policy that may have been entirely beyond its immediate purposes. The official class in Russia is a military aristocracy, whose influence at the imperial court has already been referred to. On distant Asiatic

Simplicity of Russian expansion.

Reasons for the failure to understand it.

In regions little known.

Masked by astute diplomacy.

Often carried on without premeditation through un-instructed officers.

frontiers likewise, its representatives, filled with the intense national spirit that is now predominant among that class, have opportunities and are likely at any time to show their power. How many of the extensions of the Russian Asiatic frontier have been really planned at St. Petersburg and how many have been effected by the zeal of Russian officers, acting almost as independently as feudal counts of the marks in the middle ages, it would probably be hard to tell; but certainly this is a phase of Russian movement that must be reckoned with.

Russian expansion like that of the United States.

Russia has never been a colonizing power, in the sense of planting settlements or acquiring territory in non-contiguous lands. In the early part of the nineteenth century it did, indeed, have certain colonial projects in western North America, against which one clause of the Monroe doctrine was very emphatically directed; but Russian growth has been a normal movement of territorial expansion, peculiar to itself among European nations,

SIBERIAN TARANTASS WITH A TROIKA.

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and more nearly resembling the expansion of the United States than that of any other nation in history, — that is, it has been by the constant addition of contiguous territory, occupied for the most part by peoples of the same race stock, or by inferior nomadic or semi-civilized tribes, in obedience



Environment the compelling force.

to nature's categorical imperative, as expressed in the condition and surroundings of the original home of the Russian people. What the Russians have done in this respect the Anglo-Saxon, or any other ambitious people under competent leadership, would have done. The climate of much of Russia is unpromising, and under primitive conditions compels the people living there to a hard and monotonous existence; but its vast plains have no natural boundaries, while its rivers are broad highways into more smiling lands. And so from the time of its emergence from the Mongol flood we find the Russian nation beating in every direction — north, south, west, and east — at the political bounds that history had set up around it; and from the time when it found a real leader who comprehended its needs and its future possibilities, we find it always and persistently seeking the sea — the White, the Baltic, the Black, the Mediterranean. This was natural and necessary if Russia was to make good its place among nations. Access to the White sea was a barren prize, since it was open to navigation only about three months of the year and was difficult of access even then. The Baltic was not much better. The Black sea was useless when Europe closed the gate of the Bosphorus. The Congress of Berlin foiled Russian hopes of securing the best fruit of the triumph over Turkey, free access to the *Ægean*. Thus Russia's steadily pursued policy in Europe had not brought entire satisfaction. A free and open port was yet to be attained. The disappointment of 1878 was bitter, but Russia never hesitated in its policy. Gortschakoff said some sharp things of the powers that had balked his government, and some memories were stored away in the Russian foreign office for future reference, but Russian policy remained intact, and the last twenty years have shown that it had other ways of realization.

The quest of an open sea.

When the outlawed Cossack Yermak, fleeing from the justice of Ivan the Terrible, was enabled by the money of the Stroganoffs to gather a little band of adventurers and cross the Urals into the great plains and forests of Siberia, he probably had little thought of the empire he was to give to the tsar as the price of pardon. By daring and energy he overcame the chiefs of the sparsely settled country, and on his path followed new settlers and Russian administrators, by whom the boundary was pushed always farther eastward until it reached the northern Pacific. A line of cities was built, the various tribes pacified, and Russia's grasp upon the country made firm beyond question; but it was still an undeveloped region, chiefly known for its convict settlements, its magnificent distances, and its general inaccessibility. But after the disappointment of Berlin, Russia turned her face eastward, and a wonderful development, to which the world is but just awakening, has been going on in Asiatic Russia during the last two decades. It is not my purpose at this point to consider the important international issues that are raised by Russia's advance. The problems of Asia at the beginning of the twentieth century are of sufficient importance for a somewhat extended study by themselves; but two of the great powers of Europe, Great Britain and Russia, are also great powers of Asia, and it is important that we should know the conditions of their power.

Conquest of Siberia.

Russia is seeking today in Asia, as for two centuries she has sought in Europe, open ports for her commerce. A treaty with China in 1858 secured the left bank of the Amur and the territory where the strongly fortified port of Vladivostock was built. But this port is closed by ice during a part of the year; hence Russian schemes to secure an outlet

Russia, China and Japan.



farther south. The Treaty of Shimonoseki in 1895 was her opportunity to secure Pacific ports. She had been deprived of the fruits of victory in Europe by a combination of the powers, two of which profited by their interference. Russian diplomats learn their lessons quickly. The

VIEW FROM THE
MOHAMMEDAN
PORTION OF
TASHKEND.

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Brothers.)

startling growth of the Japanese power, a menace to Russian plans in eastern Asia, could be stayed and the desired ports wrung from China. A combination was made with Germany and France, the Shimonoseki treaty went the way of that of San Stefano, and Russia, instead of Japan, occupied Port Arthur and the Liao Tung peninsula. This occupation is under a lease for twenty-five years, but a new town, Dalny, has been founded, with railway connections, and there is no precedent in Russian history to indicate that this acquisition will ever be given up. Port Arthur is already strongly fortified and a thoroughly equipped naval depot.

From the time of Peter the Great, Russia has been steadily at work in western and central Asia, always pushing her frontiers farther south. From the Caucasus she was able to watch Turkey and Persia, and after the Treaty of Berlin she settled down as their next door neighbor. In the trans-Caspian country, the seat of long past civilizations and ancient empires whose records are buried in their ruins, Russia has steadily strengthened her ascendancy by her own peculiar and successful methods. By the acquisition of territories from such states or tribes as would

Western and
central Asia.

yield readily to her persuasion or her power, she has closed in upon such as resisted, has found early occasion in the name of civilization and order to administer one never-to-be-forgotten lesson, and then has received their submission, either as vassal states or incorporated provinces. Russia is quite willing to maintain the vassal state relation. It costs less and is quite as effective when properly managed as is actual possession. Lord Wellesley, a century ago, reached the same conclusion in India, and made such arrangements an important part of British policy there. Thus Khiva and Bokhara are vassal states of Russia. In Tashkent in Turkestan, which is incorporated in the Russian empire, a Russian governor-general and officials control the central Asiatic provinces.

Facility in dealing
with Asiatics.

Two points are to be noted as of greatest importance in their bearing upon Russian expansion. One is the exceptional facility with which the Russians can deal with and absorb Asiatic peoples. This facility is due

to two facts. The first, the admixture of Asiatic strains in the Russian stock, and the long acquaintance of the Russians, as vassals and masters, with the races of northern and central Asia, has been mentioned elsewhere. The second, the tolerance of the Russian toward customs and religions other than his own



A SCENE IN THE
RUSSIAN CAUCASUS.
(From Freshfield's "Central
Caucasus." Copyright,
1869, by Longmans,
Green & Co.)

is equally important. The religion of the Russian is a highly developed formalism. It is a part of his daily life, but it is his own. He is not consumed with missionary fervor or theological convictions. All that the Russians ask of the Mohammedans, Buddhists, or people of other cults, is absolute political submission. That granted, they are allowed to go on in their own way of life, shielded by the power and prestige of the great White Tsar. Among nations that are, for the most part, without political ambitions, this is a very satisfactory arrangement. Since 1813 Great Britain has been hampered in India by the yearning of its philanthropists to make the ancient Indian world over on the English model. It is this, and not its political supremacy, that makes the British situation in India a critical one. The earlier Indian policy of Hastings and Wellesley ran along the lines which the Russians now follow so successfully.

Russian
railway system.

The second important element in Russian expansion is the scientific development of strategic railways. "With forethought, energy, and fertility of resource, Russia is leading the way, and showing the world how to conquer by railways. She alone has recognized how much more valuable are communications than mere army corps; how necessary in the conduct of a nation's affairs is a fixed plan." The conception and accomplishment of that stupendous enterprise, the Trans-Siberian railway, from Moscow to Vladivostock, with its Manchurian connection to Port Arthur, is familiar to the world from many recent descriptions. The steady progress of the southern lines in the trans-Caucasus and trans-Caspian countries, with their ultimate destination some port on the Persian gulf, is well understood by students of the subject, but is not

Siberia.

¹ A. R. Colquhoun, "Russia Against India," pp. 193, 194.

so familiar to the general public. Sweeping through Cis-Caucasia and Trans-Caucasia, two railway lines converge at Baku, a fortified post on the western shore of the Caspian. Directly opposite from Krasnovodsk on the eastern shore, the Trans-Caspian railway extends along the Persian border, through Askabad to Merv, and thence northeastward through Bokhara and Samarkand, names rich with tradition and with the mystery of unexplored Asia, to Khokand and Tashkent, the headquarters of Russian central Asia. Furthermore, an air line is in process of construction from Saratof on the Volga, running southeast between the Caspian and Aral seas, through Khiva, to a connection with the Trans-Caspian at Charjui, near Bokhara. These lines of railways furnish, or will furnish, an outlet for colonists as well as merchandise, for the normal increase of the Russian people is greater at present than that of the people of any other first-class power. More than that, it will be observed that these lines provide the most direct possible communication between important strategic points along the Russian borders, and the war office knows by actual experiment how long it will take to transfer troops from one point to another. Russian railway plans also contemplate one or more lines across Persia to the Persian gulf, where the government is negotiating to obtain the lease or cession of a port from Persia. A military branch now extends southward from Merv almost to Herat, the key to northwestern Afghanistan, and may be extended southward through that country to Seistan and thence through Persia to the gulf or the Arabian sea. Another possible line is under consideration from Askabad southward. Another projected line extends from Tiflis in Trans-Caucasia to Teheran and thence to the delta of the Tigris and Euphrates. These projects all have international bearings, which will be discussed in another chapter. They show the well-defined purpose in every movement made by the government of the tsar.

Caucasia.

Central Asia.

Persia.

The widespread illiteracy of Russia produces a people of narrow vision, easily led. While municipal government has slowly grown more democratic, the autocratic principle has gained strength in the central government, because it has been used for the economic advantage of the people. A continuity of administration, preserved by long tenure of official positions and a fixed, hereditary policy, makes it possible to carry out vast enterprises of national development steadily and quietly, bringing all the resources of the country to bear in their accomplishment. Hence Russia never falters and seldom fails in her purposes. Heretofore industrialism, the needs of the people, have had less to do with Russian expansion than with that of other European peoples. Now the careful cultivation of national interests by a succession of tsars is bearing fruit in a growing industrial activity. With the widening of opportunity and experience, the intellectual attitude of the Russian is likely to change and the social and political conditions of the empire to undergo modification; but there is nothing in our knowledge of democracy to indicate that this will lead to any contracting of the field of national activity or ambition.

Probable effect of Russian progress on Russian expansion.



REVIEW QUESTIONS.

1. How are English crown colonies administered? 2. Why is India regarded as an empire? CHAPTER XVI.
3. Of what importance is India to England? 4. Why is it a source of anxiety? 5. Where are the English protectorates? 6. How has English colonial policy been regarded at different times in its history? 7. What was Sir John Seeley's view of the colonial spirit? 8. In what haphazard way has colonial administration developed in England? 9. How did the South African war show the strength of the tie between England and the colonies? 10. Why is England likely to hold the allegiance of even the oriental peoples under her control?

CHAPTER XVII.

1. What was Bismarck's policy in encouraging colonies? 2. How does the history of the British East India Company affect his argument? 3. How did Bismarck attempt to deal with the Socialists? 4. Why did he favor a protective tariff? 5. How did he develop trade in Africa, Asia and Australasia? 6. In what centers of coming importance are German industries already strongly entrenched? 7. How did Kiau-Chau become German territory? 8. Why is peace necessary to Germany's best development?

CHAPTER XVIII.

1. How does the difference in the temperament of the French and Germans show itself in their colonizing plans? 2. Why has the government of France been less successful in promoting colonization than that of England or Germany? 3. How does the policy of France in Indo-China illustrate her commercial spirit? 4. How is expansion in France a sentiment as well as a commercial necessity? 5. What are the present possessions of France in India? 6. What does French Indo-China include? 7. How important are her African colonies? 8. How is Algeria governed? 9. How Tunis? 10. How the other colonies? 11. How did France secure Madagascar? 12. What is France ambitious to secure in Africa? 13. What are her American possessions? 14. Why are the fishing islands so important? 15. What peculiar character has New Caledonia? 16. How does the French love of office affect the colonies?

CHAPTER XIX.

1. What three reasons are there for the apparent mystery surrounding Russia's policy? 2. What has been the nature of Russia's expansion? 3. How has she been balked in her quest for seaports? 4. How has she secured these in Asia? 5. How has she extended her territory beyond the Caspian? 6. What two facts explain Russia's ready absorption of Asiatic peoples? 7. How are Russia's railway enterprises made to favor expansion? 8. Trace on the map the finished and projected Russian railways. 9. How has the character of the Russian people and of their rulers made the wonderful growth of the country possible?

*Search Questions.*

1. When and how did Queen Victoria receive the title Empress of India? 2. When did England secure a foothold in Borneo? 3. What is the Congo Free State? 4. Who is Cecil Rhodes? 5. What and where is Réunion? 6. When was Ivan the Terrible emperor of Russia?



XII.

Bibliography.

For the most important statistical data relating to the British and other colonies, "The Statesman's Year Book" is a convenient reference. On chapter XVI., see the works cited in bibliography X. and XI.

XIII.

On chapter XVII. see especially Reinsch, "World Politics," cited under I. A comprehensive list of books of reference on German dependencies will be found on p. 627 of "The Statesman's Year Book" for 1899. From this list such books as are available may be selected. There are no important English works dealing with this subject.

XIV.

On chapter XVIII., see the works cited under bibliography III. (October); under X. (January); and Lowell, "Colonial Civil Service" (Macmillan, 1900).

XV.

On chapter XIX., see especially Alfred Rambaud, "The Expansion of Russia: Problems of the East and Problems of the Far East," in *The International Monthly* (Burlington, Vermont), for September and October, 1900; the series of articles by Henry Norman, begun in *Scribner's Magazine*, October, 1900, on "Russia of Today"; Reinsch, "World Politics"; W. D. Foulke, "Slav or Saxon" (New York, 1898); A. R. Colquhoun, "Russia against India" (Harpers, 1900), and "Overland to China" (Harpers, 1900).

TOPICAL ANALYSIS.

GROWTH OF THE BRITISH IMPERIAL CONCEPTION.

- The crown colonies.
 - A distinctive tropical type.
- India, the crown colony that is an empire.
 - Administration.
 - Problems.
- Protectorates and chartered companies.
- An unconscious growth.
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 - Bismarck's attitude.
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CHAPTER XVII.

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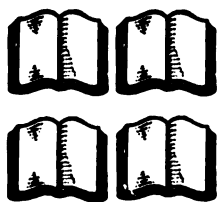
- The two epochs of French colonial activity.
 - Weakness of the French as colonizers compared with English and Germans.
 - Their object commercial opportunity and national glory.
 - The new interest in colonies.
- French dependencies summarized.
 - Asia.
 - Africa.
 - Algeria the African base of operations.
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 - The penal colonies and Pacific islands.
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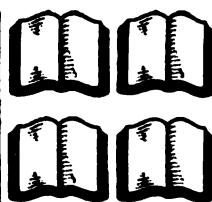
THE EXPANSION OF RUSSIA.

- The simplicity of Russian expansion.
 - Reasons for the failure to understand it.
 - Similarity to the expansion of the United States.
 - The quest of an open sea.
- The conquest of Siberia.
- Russia, China, and Japan.
- Western and Central Asia.
- Russian facility in dealing with Asiatics.
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 - Russian tolerance.
- Russia's Asiatic railway system.
 - Siberia, Caucasia, Central Asia, Persia.
- Probable effect on the national expansion of the progress of the people.

CHAPTER XIX.



A READING JOURNEY IN the ORIENT



Summary of Pre-
ceding Chapters.

[The voyage from New York to Gibraltar, scenes in Tangier and Algiers, and the arrival at Alexandria were described in the October issue. In November, Alexandria, the trip to Upper Egypt, and scenes along the Nile were the subjects considered. In December, "Down the Nile to Cairo" was the topic. "Modern Palestine and Syria — from Port Said to Beirut" constituted the region visited in January.]

V. GLIMPSES OF ASIA MINOR.

BY PROF. J. R. SITLINGTON STERRETT,

(Amherst College.)



OR the traveler who has just made the tour of Palestine and Syria the short-cut to the historic sites in the high plateau of central Asia Minor will be along the line of the ancient Persian postal road, which led from distant Susa to Ephesus. To that end he will leave the ship at Mersin, the thriving seaport of modern Tarsus. A short ride directly west from Mersin will bring him to the ruins of Pompeiopolis, so named after Pompey the Great who rebuilt and colonized his conquered pirates in the more ancient Soli, a place which attracts our interest because of our word *solecism*. The natives, who were not Greeks by descent, spoke such wretched Greek that any one who made a grave grammatical error was said to have spoken like a citizen of Soli, to have committed a solecism.

As the traveler approaches Tarsus, he will admire the fertility of the country and the rich fields of cotton, sesame, and sugar-cane, and will wonder that the sugar-cane is grown not for the sake of sugar, but to be eaten raw, and he will see that every one carries a few joints of the juicy reed in his hand or in his belt ready for use. Tarsus itself nestles amid semi-tropical trees, like the myrtle, oleander, pomegranate, fig, and a variety of fruit trees, on the banks of the crystal-clear, deep, and rapid Cydnus river, whose waters are icy cold, because they come direct from the neighboring snowfields of Mt. Tarsus. Alexander the Great was

Ruins of
Pompeiopolis.

Approach to
Tarsus.

Cydnus river.

SMALL TEMPLE AT
COMANA, ILLUS-
TRATING THE CON-
TRAST BETWEEN
THE SPLENDOR OF
ANTIQUITY AND THE
DESOLATION OF
TODAY.





HADJIN, ON A
ROCKY PROMONTORY
IN THE TAURUS
MOUNTAINS.

indiscreet enough to bathe in those icy waters when he was dripping with perspiration and he came nigh paying with his life for his folly. Barbarossa, crusader king and emperor, fared not so well, for he died because he bathed in the Calycadnus river, some distance west of Tarsus.

In Tarsus many visions flit before the mental eye. We hear that it was founded by Sennacherib, warrior king of Nineveh, and we catch glimpses of Assurbanipal, known and highly honored in Tarsus as Sardanapalus. In Genesis it was an oriental city, and such it remained until the time of the Seleucid kings when many Greeks settled there, made it a great center of trade, and founded a school of philosophy or university, which became famous in imperial times, when the birthplace of St. Paul was in very truth no mean city. For at this university, no doubt, Paul became as learned in the wisdom of the Gentiles as he afterwards did in that of the Pharisee school of Gamaliel.

Assurbanipal.

Another vision shows us Marc Antony sitting in Roman splendor as judge in the market-place of Tarsus, the while Cleopatra, the Siren of the Nile, sailed up the Cydnus in her famous gilded galley with its silver-plated oars to meet her Roman judge, whom she vanquished so utterly that scoffers told how Venus had enmeshed Bacchus.

Antony and
Cleopatra.

In another vision we see Tarsus as the mighty frontier city of Harun-al-Rashid, in whose garrison were numbered citizens of every city in the Mohammedan world.

St. Paul, the tent-maker, learned his trade at home in Tarsus, and to this day tentmaking is one of the chief industries of the modern town of eighteen thousand inhabitants. The country is cursed with a pernicious fever during the summer, when all who can afford it flee for safety to the cooler air of the neighboring mountains, which are so lofty that they seem to rise directly out of the sea as one approaches the Cilician shores from Cyprus or Beirut.

St. Paul in Tarsus.

The road from Tarsus to central Asia Minor follows the course of the Persian postal road through the Cilician Gates, a pass which is eighty-three miles in length and in its narrowest place is a crevasse-like cleft in the mountains. The pass was celebrated from earliest times down to the present, because of the danger attending its passage and the ease with which it might be defended. It fully justifies the Arab proverb: "Whoso fears not the Cilician Gates, fears not Allah." It is only within recent years that it has become possible for a vehicle of any kind to go through the Gates.

Cilician Gates.

Once on the summit, the descent to the great interior plateau is but

ROOF OF MISSION-
ARY POST IN
ALBISTAN, EAST OF
HADJIN, SHOWING
WHERE SLEEP IS
OBTAINED IN MID-
SUMMER.
(From a photograph taken
at sunrise.)



Tyana, home of
Apollonius.

slight, and still following the Persian postal road, the traveler soon reaches Tyana, famed as the home of Apollonius, neo-pythagorean philosopher, traveler, prophet, and worker of miracles. He was born about the year 1, and created a great sensation in the first centuries of our era. His doctrine was purer than that of the old paganism, its chief tenets being that God is worshiped neither by sacrifice nor by prayer, but by the reason alone. At the command of the Empress Julia Domna his life was written by Philostratus for the express purpose of showing that Apollonius was a more admirable religious teacher than Jesus Christ, although Christ's name is not mentioned in the book. This view has been accepted in modern times by Voltaire and Wieland.

Ürgüb.

Journeying north past Nazianzus, the home of St. Gregory Nazianzenus, we finally reach Ürgüb in the center of a vast volcanic region covered by a layer of pumice-stone of incredible thickness. The pumice-stone was originally overlaid by a thin covering of lava, and the whole field is intersected by a series of cañons created by the solvent action of water. The process of erosion and degradation has created thousands of cones, wonderful in themselves, but still more wonderful because, thanks to the friable nature of the stone, the cones were excavated into dwellings, temples, churches, and chapels. (See *The Century Magazine* for September, 1900.)

East of this troglodyte region towers the mass of Mt. Argæus, the loftiest mountain in Asia Minor. In the plain at its eastern base lies Mazaca, renamed Cæsarea in honor of Tiberius. It was once, and perhaps is still, the most important commercial city of Asia Minor. Its citadel was built by Justinian, and afterwards served as the palace of the Seljuk sultans, whose magnificent tombs are still extant.

AMERICAN MISSION
AT HADJIN.



Pteria.

Again traveling north across that boundary of the ancient Lydian kingdom, the Halys river, we reach Pteria, now represented by the rock-cut



ALBISTAN PROTESTANT CONGREGATION LEAVING A MEETING HELD IN AN UPPER CHAMBER, ENTERED FROM THE ROOFS OF THE SURROUNDING BUILDINGS.

sculptures of Boghaz-keni. Pteria was the capital city of the Hittite empire in Asia Minor, and of course the road system centered there, one road running south through the Cilician Gates, and another southwest through Ancyra to Ephesus. After the conquest of Asia Minor by the Persians, the Royal Road between Susa and Ephesus still made the great detour by way of Pteria-Tavium, instead of taking the natural shortcut directly west from Tyana. The reason was that the Persians preferred to avail themselves of the already existing good roads of the Hittites rather than build a new road, although it would have brought Ephesus nearer to Susa by many days' travel.

Tavium.

Just one hundred Roman miles west of Tavium lies Ancyra, the modern Angora, now best known for its hairy cats and the famous goats, whose long, curly hair of silky texture furnishes the world with its mohair. Angora cats retain their hair when acclimated in foreign countries, but attempts to acclimatize the Angora goat have failed everywhere, except in South Africa. In other countries the goat loses its coat of silk and becomes an ordinary billy-goat. So valuable is this goat for purposes of revenue that the Turkish government has made it a high crime to export it.

Angora.

The Emperor Augustus made Ancyra the capital of Galatia and thereby increased its importance. In gratitude therefor the citizens built in his

honor a temple, whose ruins still exist. On its marble sides was engraven the autobiography of Augustus, a document of priceless value.

The Galatians, to whom St. Paul wrote an epistle, were Gauls who had been settled in this region as the sole means of abating their predatory



A TRAVELER'S OUTFIT; READY FOR THE START FROM A TURKISH VILLAGE.

invasions. In Europe they would be called Frenchmen. Traces of the Galatian stock may still be seen in the red-headed and blue-eyed Turks (so called) of the region. Angora — usually mispronounced in this country, as the accent should be on the first syllable — is still a city of 32,000.

Southwest of Angora, near Sivri Hissar, are the ruins of Pessinus,

KHAN (INN) IN
MALATIA, EAST OF
COMANA, WHERE
AN ARMENIAN
MASSACRE TOOK
PLACE.



Cybele.

famous as the seat of the worship of Cybele, the Great Mother of the Gods, that is, the Asiatic goddess of fertility, who was known under different names, Ishtar, Astarte, Ma, Anaitis, and Diana (of Ephesus). Her priests were of royal rank and attained to their dignity by self-mutilations.

Gordium.

Not far from Pessinus lay Gordium, named after Gordius, the founder of the Phrygian dynasty. During a civil war an oracle announced to the Phrygians that their bickerings would end, if they should proclaim as king of Phrygia the first man whom they should meet wending his way to the temple of Zeus. This first person chanced to be the peasant Gordius, who was seated in his farm wagon. In thankfulness Gordius dedicated his old wagon in the temple of Zeus, and tied the yoke to the pole with so cunning a *Gordian knot*, that no man could untie it. As the empire of the world was promised to the man who could undo this knot, Alexander the Great was eager to see the prophecy fulfilled in his own person, and solved the problem by hewing the knot in two with his sword.

Dorylaeum.

Northwest of Pessinus is Dorylaeum (Eski Shehir), in the center of the region from which meerschaum comes. The mineral is found in isolated nuggets or clumps, and is as soft as wax when first dug up. It is dried with care to prevent cracks. The meerschaum clumps are usually small in size and for that reason meerschaum pipes are rarely, almost never, genuine, as the true and valuable meerschaum pipes are carved from native mineral. The small nuggets and the parings of larger pieces are made into a dough, pressed, and may be forged into any size required. The pipes on the American market are usually made in this way.

Tombs of the
Phrygian kings.

Journeying south from Dorylaeum over the meerschaum fields, past Seid el Ghazi, the region of the tombs of the Phrygian kings is reached. These tombs are cut in the native rock and have ornamental façades, on many of which may still be read the original inscriptions written with Greek letters, though the language is Phrygian. Most noteworthy among them is the tomb of King Midas, famous in the histories of early art because of its rug-pattern façade. The hill at whose base it lies is proven to be the ancient Midas-town by its many rock-cut altars and other ruins. Near it is Pishmish Kaleh (Baked Castle), so called because its fortifications are not walls built up by the stonemason, but the native rock itself has been hollowed out, thus leaving a rim which served as the best of walls. Mythology accounted for the fabulous wealth of Midas with the story that Dionysus granted Midas's prayer that whatever he might touch should be turned into gold. As his very food became gold in his hands, Dionysus bade him bathe in the Pactolus river, whose sands were auriferous thereafter.

Tomb of Midas.



STREETS OF MALATIA
COVERED WITH A
RUDE ROOF FOR
PROTECTION AGAINST
THE FIERY SUN.

Southwest of Midas-town lies prosperous Ushak, along with Gedis to the north of it, the center of the manufacture of the famous Turkish rugs. The manufacture of rugs has been practised in this whole region from the dawn of history—witness the rug façade of Midas's tomb—and it is still the chief occupation of a large section of country in which every member of every family has a rug in the process of making. The rug industry is conditioned by an abundance of suitable wool, dye-stuffs in the shape of Avignon berries and madder, and water with certain chemical properties. The cultivation and growing of dye-stuffs was a most profitable agricultural industry prior to the discovery of aniline dyes. Avignon berries are still grown for the dyeing of leather, etc., but madder, which produced the glorious Turkey reds, is almost a thing of the past.

Turkish rug
industry.

The whole region of country between Ushak and Apamaea became Christian at an early period, as the many Christian inscriptions and ruins of churches prove. The early Christians before Constantine's time had no legal status in the Roman world and could not bequeath or inherit property. They therefore concealed their identity under trade-guilds, which did have a legal status. The whole region fairly teems with Chris-

tian inscriptions, from which we learn that Christianity did not immediately remake the whole life and manners of its converts, who continued to live in many respects as before, being characterized by most of the habits, and some, or even many, of the faults of their old life and of the society in which

FARM IMPLEMENTS:
A WAGON, WITH
GRAIN LADDERS, A
"THRESHING MA-
CHINE" WITH FLINT
GRINDERS, AND
TWO "FANS."



they lived. Externals remained the same; they continued to live in company with the pagans, similar in respect of food, dress, surroundings, and appliances, frequenting the same forum, baths, shops, fairs, etc.; they observed the same laws of politeness in society; their houses were the same; they kept up the same family names, and when they died

their graves, tombstones, and epitaphs were in the ordinary style at the very first, and were not openly Christian until a comparatively late date. (See Ramsay's "Cities and Bishopricks.")

The valonia oak.

This region, along with the whole northwest of Asia Minor, produces the valonia oak for the sake of the cups of its acorns, which are of great size and ruggedness. These acorn-cups make a most profitable crop, as they are eagerly sought for in Europe for purposes of tanning, dyeing, and ink-manufacture. The trees are carefully cultivated.



CONE DWELLINGS OF
THE CAPPADOCIAN
TROGLODYTES.

At Celaenae (Dineir) the Meander rises from a multitude of springs, Laughing and Weeping Fountains, which well forth from the base of the mountain. In the neighborhood on a lofty acropolis stood the palace of Cyrus, surrounded by a great park stocked with all kinds of wild animals, which Cyrus used to hunt. Across the mountain directly east of Celaenae is the real source of the Meander, a lake fed by the famous spring of Aulocrene, whose waters sink beneath the mountain to rise at Celaenae. After Athens had invented the flute she saw her distorted face reflected in the water of Aulocrene (the spring of the flute). She threw it away in disgust and Marsyas picked it up, and became such a proficient player upon it that he ventured to contend with Apollo for the musical supremacy.

Apollo with his lyre stood for Greek civilization, while Marsyas with his flute represented the degrading Phrygian cult of Cybele and Dionysus. Midas decided the contest in favor of Marsyas, and Apollo gave him ass's ears in punishment for his crooked decision, but he flayed Marsyas alive and hung up his skin in the cave from which Aulocrene gushes, a river at its start. The flaying of Marsyas served as a motive for many works of art. It was not kings alone who had great wealth, for Pythius, a private citizen of Celaenae, had the equivalent of sixteen million dollars, according to Herodotus.

The wealthy
Pythius.

North of Celaenae in the plain of Sandukli lay Hieropolis, the home of St. Abercius, a very holy man and worker of miracles, whose story is told in full in the *Acta Sanctorum*. He was called to Rome to expel devils from the daughter of the emperor, and while there saw and admired the white marble of Carrara. He thereupon ordered the devil, his humble servitor, to transport a block of this marble to Hieropolis and to inscribe thereon an epitaph indited by the saint himself. The story was regarded as a worthless fable, but it had some foundation, for the stone bearing the original epitaph was discovered by Mr. Ramsay and the present writer at the hot springs which Abercius had caused to well forth in the plain.

Home of St.
Abercius.

Northeast of Hieropolis lies the city of Afium Kara Hissar (the Black

Opium Castle). Opium is grown everywhere in Asia Minor, where the wild poppy seems to be indigenous, and in the spring clothes the entire country in one flaming dress of red. Opium is an uncertain crop, for if rain falls after the pods have been slit to allow the gum to ooze out and before it has been scraped off, the entire crop is ruined. But in spite of the risk attending its cultivation, it is one of the best paying crops, because it is eagerly bought up, and its bulk is small, an important point in a country whose means of transportation are cumbersome and primitive. Traveling southeast, we reach Iconium, now Konieh, most famous as the capital city of the Seljuk sultans. For the Christian it has the added interest of having been the scene of some of the labors of St. Paul. It is situated on the edge of the great, level, waterless plain that stretches far to the eastward, and continually deludes the thirsty traveler by its wonderful mirages, whose lifelike trees and green verdure promise water. But like the foot of the rainbow, the trees and the verdure ever recede.

The old Seljuk city of Konieh was destroyed by Ibrahim Pasha of Egypt in 1832, and its beautiful enameled mosques and minarets now dot the plain as ruins on the outskirts of the modern town, whose mosques are not of Seljuk origin. Konieh rugs are famous, as are also its Mevlevi dervishes, who have leavened the whole lump with intolerance of strangers.

Southwest of Konieh at Khatun Serai lay Lystra, where St. Paul preached and was stoned. The present writer discovered the site by means of a Latin inscription on a pedestal on which once stood the statue of the Emperor Augustus. When the discoverer knelt to copy the inscription and saw that he had found Lystra, when he realized that Paul had surely stood in his very tracks and read those identical letters, he

Opium growing.



TOMB OF MIDAS IN PHRYGIA.

(From Gardner's "Sculptured Tombs of Helias." The Macmillan Company.)

Old city of Konieh.

Lystra, where Paul was stoned.



A CHURCH OF THE CAPPADOCIAN TROGLodyTES.

had the archæologist's full and sweet reward. It was really to the people of Iconium, Derbe, and Lystra that Paul's Epistle to the Galatians was addressed, for at that time those cities formed a part of Galatia.

Heading northwest along the royal road often trodden by the

feet of Paul and Barnabas, we reach Antioch in Pisidia, where they "shook off the dust of their feet" against the resident Jews. Antioch (now Yalo-vatch) lies in a fertile plain amid gardens and trees. There are some ruins and a multitude of inscriptions in and about the place, which is of interest to us solely because of St. Paul's labors there. The scene of a part of the "Acts of Paul and Thekla" is laid at Antioch. Thekla was

Thekla.

a female teacher and preacher who was converted by Paul at Iconium. For the story of her trials see Ramsay's "Church in the Roman Empire," p. 375. A description of Paul may be quoted from these "Acts": "A

man small in size, with meeting eyebrows, with a rather large nose, baldheaded, bowlegged, strongly built, full of grace, for at times he looked like a man, and at times he had the face of an angel."

Traveling southwest from Antioch we find the water pouring from the southernmost end of Egherdir lake and forming a large river at its start; but the water sinks at intervals with a rush and roar, and finally the river no longer exists. Its waters rise again below Baulo and form the main branch of the Cestrus river. Adada (now Karabaulo) and Baulo are also most certainly connected with St. Paul. *Baulo* is the Turkish corruption of *Paulus*. These places are high up on the Taurus mountains commanding a mighty sweep of majestic, almost terri-



TROY—SUBSTRUCTURE OF THE ACROPOLIS WALL OF THE SECOND CITY, NEAR THE SOUTHWEST GATE, WITH THE RAMP.

(From "Schliemann's Excavations," by Dr. Schuchhardt. The Macmillan Company.)

fying, mountain scenery. No more health-giving spot could be imagined. They lay on the direct route trod by Paul in going from Perge to Antioch. That they bear Paul's name to this day is no doubt due to the fact that he resided there for some time to cure himself of malarial fever.

Laodicea.

Journeying westward, a short distance west of Colossae, and on the Lycus river, we find Laodicea, one of the seven churches. It was one of the richest cities in Asia, and could therefore say (Rev. 3:17): "I am rich and increased with goods, and have need of nothing." The banks and financial operations of Laodicea were famous, and therefore we read (Rev. 3:18): "I counsel thee to buy of me" (not the gold stored up in your banks, but) "gold refined by fire, that thou mayest become rich." Laodicea was noted for its woolen manufactures made from undyed wool of a natural glossy black. The shining black garments for both sexes were woven in one piece, like the shirt of our Savior, and therefore we read (Rev. 3:18): "(I counsel thee to buy of me) *white* raiment that thou mayest be clothed."

The black sheep from which this wool came are now extinct. Laodicea lay in the hot and dusty plain, where good water was scarce. The city was therefore removed to the cool and shady place now called Denizli, where pure water flows unrestrained through



CEMETERY AT ICONIUM, SHOWING MODERN GRAVE-STONES.

the streets, a fact which gave rise to the name Denizli ("like the sea").

Meander

The tortuous course of the Meander river has caused its name to be

given to a labyrinthine architectural ornament and has enriched our language with the word "meander." The valley is one of the richest in the world. The licorice (sweet root) shrub grows so vigorously that it cannot be eradicated from the soil. But fortunately for the native farmer the roots of the shrub furnish the world with the licorice paste which colors medicines, sweetens chewing tobacco, and serves as an excipient for pill-masses. The root penetrates to a depth of thirty feet in the marvelously rich alluvium. The deeper-lying roots make the richest paste, but because of the difficulty of digging the lowest roots, only those near the surface are harvested. An English company, with headquarters and a factory in Tralles, has a monopoly of the entire licorice output of the valley. Originally the company made the paste in Tralles, but our government put such a high duty on the paste that the company was forced to build a paste factory in New Jersey, to which the licorice root is sent, mostly in the company's own ships. The root is carried on the backs of a vast host of camels to the factory, where it is built up into gigantic ricks and covered with a waterproof roof of tiles. When dry, the root is compressed into bales by a powerful hydraulic gin, and is then ready for shipment to this country, where most of the licorice is consumed in the manufacture of chewing tobacco. The harvesting of the root is done in the early autumn, and constitutes the best kind of ploughing. Wheat is then sown, and after it is harvested corn is planted.

The licorice shrub.



MOSQUE IN ANTIOCH
OF FISIDIA, SHOW-
ING THE WAY
ANCIENT STONES
WERE USED IN
TURKISH BUILDINGS.

This valley is the home of the fig known in commerce as the Smyrna fig, solely because it is shipped to foreign parts from the port of Smyrna. The fig tree, like the palm, is male and female. The male tree blossoms and forms fruit in advance of the female tree. The fruit of the male tree is not edible, and serves merely as a nesting and feeding place for insects. The blossom of the female tree is fertilized artificially by hang-

The Smyrna fig.



ing strings of the male fruit on the female trees, so that the pollen may be carried by the insects to the female blossom.

There were many prosperous cities in the Meander valley, and of these Magnesia and Myus were two of the three whose revenues were allotted to Themistocles by Artaxerxes.

TEMPLE OF CYBELE
AT SARDES.

In antiquity the Latmic gulf extended far inland to the east of Miletus, but now, thanks to the alluvium deposited by the Meander, the site of Miletus is actually some miles inland. Before the Persian wars Miletus was the first city on the western seaboard in commerce, literature, and art, but it declined rapidly after 480 B. C. South of Miletus, at Didyma, was a celebrated temple of Apollo, whose sculptures play an important rôle in the history of early Greek sculpture.

Halicarnassus.

Halicarnassus is best known because of two of its queens, both of whom bore the name Artemisia. The one espoused the cause of Persia against Greece, and fought so bravely in the naval battle off Salamis that in his rage the defeated Xerxes affirmed that his men had fought like women, and his women like men. More than a century later another queen Artemisia erected in memory of Mausolus, the deceased king who was at once her brother and her husband, a sepulchral monument of such surpassing magnificence in its architecture and sculptured adornment that it was reckoned as one of the seven wonders of the world. It was called the Mausoleum, after Mausolus, and from that day to this the name has been applied to all costly and pretentious tombs. It was built and

The Mausoleum.



VILLAGE FOUNTAIN
ON THE ROAD BE-
TWEEN ANTIOCH
AND ICONIUM.

adorned by a galaxy of gifted Greek sculptors. The site was excavated by Newton, who made it possible to reconstruct the tomb. The extant sculptures are now in the British Museum.

Ephesus, the first city of Asia, was famous for its abounding wealth. The temple itself served as a bank, which was patronized by the great all over the world.

Ephesus.

This was also true of the chief sanctuaries in Greece proper, for the games and other festal occasions attracted visitors from every part of the world and greatly facilitated interstate business transactions of every kind.

Ephesus was said to have been founded by the Amazons, or priestesses of the Asiatic goddess, who was here known as Artemis (the "Diana of the Ephesians"). The Amazon myth arose from the fact that Greek travelers in the interior of Asia found such a horde of women serving in various capacities in the temples of the Asiatic goddess that they brought back tales of a country inhabited by women alone. This Artemis of Ephesus must not be confounded with Artemis, the pure Greek deity, for the Ephesian Artemis was a hideous conception of the Asiatic mind and wholly unlike the Greek ideas of the deity. The old temple of Diana, to which Croesus gave a number of columns, was burned by Herostratus on the night of the birth of Alexander the Great. His avowed object was to make his name famous. The burnt temple was soon replaced by a far more magnificent Ionic temple of such colossal dimensions and artistic perfection that it was reckoned as one of the seven wonders of the world. This new temple was plundered by Nero, and was burned by the Goths when they sacked Ephesus in 262 A. D. Its ruins were excavated by Wood in 1870 and a drum of one of the famous sculptured columns

GROUP FROM THE
ALTAR OF PER-
GAMUM.

[From Tarbell's "History
of Greek Art." The
Macmillan Company.]



Croesus.

was secured for the British Museum. Beneath the foundations of this new temple Wood discovered not only the foundations of the older temple, but also one of its sculptured drums, belonging to one of the columns presented by Croesus, a treasure indeed. Croesus was ever a cheerful contributor to religious objects, and his gifts to the shrine of Apollo at Delphi alone were estimated at six million dollars.

The Ephesians were believers in sorcery and witchcraft, to which

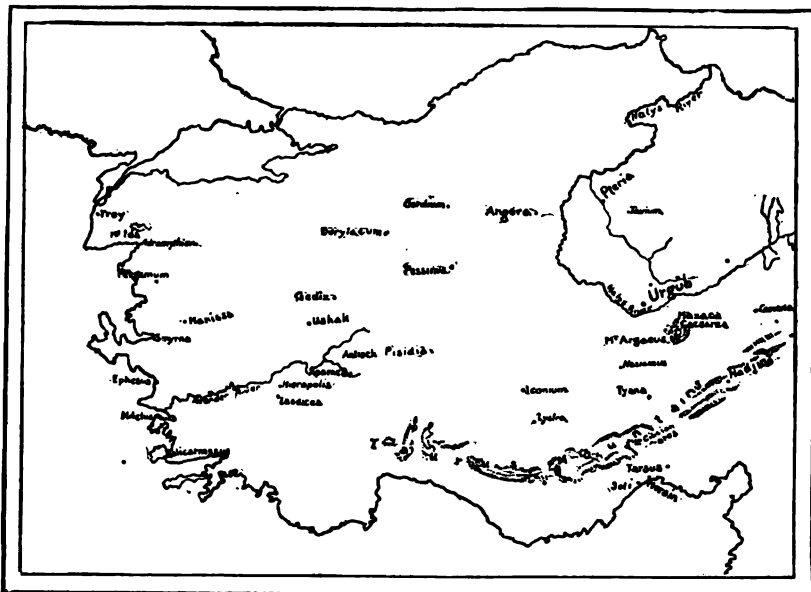
reference is made in Acts 19:13 ff. We gain some idea of the vastness of this nefarious business from the statement in Acts 19:19 to the effect that when many of these sorcerers were converted by Paul, they showed their change of heart by burning their books on sorcery to the value of fifty thousand pieces of silver. The theater which was the scene of the uproar created by Demetrius, the silversmith, is still extant and in a marvelous state of preservation. It thrills the Christian's soul to stand and view the very spot where for two mortal hours the fanatical mob howled at the companions of Paul, "Great is Diana of the Ephesians."

Sorcery and witchcraft.

The harbor of Ephesus has been silted in by the deposits of the Cayster river, and the site of the city is now far from the sea. Both Miletus and Ephesus are now deserted, and deadly malaria holds them in a firm grip.

Deadly malaria.

Smyrna, one of the seven churches and still a city of two hundred thousand inhabitants, owes its continued prosperity to the fact that it lies in the path of the commerce from the fertile valleys of the Meander on the south and the Hermus on the north. Though it makes nothing itself,



SKETCH MAP OF ASIA MINOR.

it gives its name to many articles of export: Smyrna figs, Smyrna rugs, Smyrna licorice, etc., all of which come from the interior. It was probably the birthplace of Homer, who is said to have composed his poems in a cave near the source of the Meles river. The myth of Tantalus, and his children Pelops and Niobe, plays here, and the citadel and tomb of Tantalus are still shown across the gulf directly north of Smyrna. In the neighborhood of Magnesia (now Manissa) on the slopes of Mt. Sipylus is the famous rock-cut statue of Cybele, which from the time of Homer down has been wrongly called Niobe mourning for her children. Niobe, who had seven sons and seven daughters, was intimate with Leto, the mother of Apollo and Artemis, and in a moment of exaltation she boasted herself superior to Leto, in that she had fourteen children while Leto had but two. To avenge the insult put upon their mother, Apollo and Artemis slew the children of Niobe, whose grief was so great that in mercy Zeus turned her into stone and fixed her on Mt. Sipylus, "where she, albeit a stone, broodeth still over her troubles sent by the gods."

Myth of Tantalus.

The rock-sculpture on Sipylus was ever regarded as a figure of the Mater Dolorosa of paganism, because it so happened that two small streams of water oozed from the rock precisely through the figure's eyes. The story of Niobe served as a motive for artists, and gave rise to a famous

Rock-sculpture on Sipylus.

group representing the killing of her children by Apollo and Artemis. Partial copies of this group are preserved in Florence and Rome.

Sardes.

Sardes, one of the seven churches, is now represented by the small village of Sart. It was the capital of Croesus, the multimillionaire king of Lydia. The wealth of Croesus and of Lydia was gained not so much from the gold sands of the Pactolus as by trade. For from primeval times the industrial arts and manufactures flourished here. The Lydians were the first people to establish markets and to coin money. They had a natural aptitude for trade and they were found as sutlers in every armed encampment, and generals were often forced to rely upon these sutlers of the Lydian market for their supplies.

The Lydians.

Cotton and tobacco.

In the fertile valley of Sardes and Philadelphia the chief crops are cotton and the splendid Turkish tobacco, which is small of leaf, light of color, and fine of texture. Owing to the fact that frost comes late, the tobacco is harvested leaf by leaf as the leaves grow ripe from the bottom of the stalk, which is still crowned with a tuft of small leaves after the crop has been harvested.

Pergamum.

Passing by Thyatira and Philadelphia, which have little of present interest, we arrive at Pergamum, on a high hill in the valley of the Caicus, the last of the seven churches. It now has six thousand inhabitants, but it was once the capital of the kingdom founded by the eunuch Philetaerus, the man who stole the nine thousand talents deposited by Lysimachus for safe keeping in the citadel of Pergamum. Under Attalus I. the city became a great center of industry, learning, arts and sciences, and the seat of the famous Pergamenian school of sculpture. Attalus adorned it with magnificent buildings and founded a library which later on contained two hundred thousand volumes. The city was overcrowded with temples, in honor of both gods and men, besides porticoes, a theater, amphitheater, circus, gymnasium, etc. A colossal altar was erected to Zeus the Savior in commemoration of Pergamum's victorious struggle with the Gauls. The frieze of the altar, which was regarded as one of the wonders of the world, bore a colossal relief representing the battle between the Gods and the Giants, and of course the Gods symbolized the Pergamenians and the Giants the defeated Gauls. Pergamum was excavated by the Prussian government (1878-86) and most of the gigantic relief is now in the Berlin Museum.

Invention of parchment.

Parchment was invented at Pergamum, where the untanned skins of animals were first employed for writing purposes. It was called *charta Pergamena* (Pergamenian paper), but was abbreviated to Pergamena, which became corrupted to our word *parchment*.

Mt. Ida.

The ascent of Mt. Ida, with its many fountains, is best made from Adramythium, a thriving town embowered in gardens with the perennial green of vast olive orchards. Two days are necessary for the trip, which is well worth making, both for the romance of standing in the place from which Zeus watched the moil of war around the walls of Troy, and also because it gives one an invaluable knowledge of the geography of the historic region, which lies like a map spread out at one's feet. Mt. Ida is still clad with giant trees which from time immemorial to the present day have well subserved the purposes of the shipbuilder. For it was at its base that Paris built his ships for the voyage to fetch to Troy his promised Helen, and Oenone wailed:

" They came, they cut away my tallest pines,
My dark tall pines, that plumed the craggy ledge
High over the blue gorge."

At Assos we once more stand upon ground trodden by the feet of St. Paul. The lofty hill on which the town stood rises almost directly out of the sea and overlooks the island of Lesbos on the south and the valley of the Satnioeis on the north. The site was excavated by the American Institute of Archæology.

St. Paul walked to Assos from Alexandria Troas, where he had rested for seven days. It was at the latter place that the young man fell out of a third-story window, having gone to sleep during Paul's long discourse on Sunday (Acts 20:9).

Because of the matchless and deathless charm of the poems of Homer, no series of events, whether mythical or historical, has had so lasting an influence on the intellectual activities of the world as the story of the Trojan war. That story must be taken at first hand from the *Iliad*, the fountain from which all subsequent poets have drunk in inspiration, for the poems of Homer molded the poetry of Greece and still molds that of the civilized world.

Troy was an insignificant place, whose citadel was situated on a low hill in the plain of the Scamander river. Schliemann won fame by excavating this citadel. He found that a number of fortresses had been built upon the same site at different epochs. Ever fortunate in his excavations, Schliemann chanced upon what he called the treasure of Priam, consisting of a large number of vases, chains, bracelets, rings, and crowns of gold and silver, all of which go back to about 1500 B. C.

At the Dardanelles the traveler may take passage to Europe or to Constantinople.



1. What associations are connected with Pompeiopolis? 2. What is the character of this region of country? 3. What famous men and deeds have their place in the history of this city? 4. Who was Apollonius? 5. What is the character of the troglodyte region? 6. What importance had the ancient Mazaca? 7. What empire had its capital at Pteria? 8. What circumstances give especial importance to Ancyra? 9. Who were the Galatians? 10. Who was Cybele? 11. Who was Gordius? 12. What industry centers at Dorylaeum? 13. Who was Midas? 14. Why has the rug industry flourished in this region? 15. What was the story of Maryas? 16. What was the legend of Hieropolis? 17. What cities associated with Paul lie to the southeast? 18. What was the character of Laodicea? 19. Describe the licorice industry. 20. When did Miletus especially flourish? 21. What historical events have made Ephesus famous? 22. What famous rock-cut figure exists at Manissa? 23. What works of art have given fame to Pergamum? 24. What classic associations has Mount Ida?

Review Questions.

1. What is the origin of "open sesame"? 2. Who were the Seleucid kings? 3. Who was St. Gregory Nazianzenus? 4. When did the Seljuk sultans flourish? 5. What are aniline dyes? 6. Where is Carrara? 7. What was the "Hanseatic League"?

Search Questions.

The most important books are those of Ramsay: *Historical Biography of Asia Minor* (1890). Standard authority, but learned and not intended for the average reader. *Cities and Bishoprics of Phrygia*, being an essay of the local history of Phrygia from the earliest times to the Turkish conquest (1895). A splendid work, crowded with instructive matter. *The Church in the Roman Empire before A. D. 170* (1893). Indispensable for St. Paul and the history of the Christian Church in the first century. *St. Paul, the Traveler and the Roman Citizen* (1898). Invaluable, but learned. *Paul's Epistle to the Galatians* (1900). Most valuable, but learned. *Impressions of Turkey during Twelve Years' Wanderings* (1897). Popular, delightful, instructive. Sir Charles Wilson, *Guide-Book to Asia Minor*. Based on accurate knowledge of the country, it has superseded the old and imperfect Murray. Hamilton, *Researches in Asia Minor*, etc. (1842), 2 vols. Scholarly, interesting, and trustworthy. Arundell, *Discoveries in Asia Minor*, including a description of the ruins of several ancient cities, and especially Antioch of Pisidia (1834), 2 vols. Ainsworth, *Travels in Asia Minor*, 2 vols. Arundell, *A Visit to the Seven Churches*. Van Lennep, *Asia Minor* (1870), 2 vols. Popular; considerable information about missionary work. Perrot and Chipiez: *History of Art in Phrygia, Lydia, Caria, and Lycia* (1892). An abominable translation from the French, but invaluable for the history of the several states named in the title. *History of Art in Asia Minor* (1890). Wretched translation, but indispensable for the Hittites. *History of Art in Primitive Greece* (1894). Miserable translation, but important for Troy. Schuchhardt, *Schliemann's Excavations* (1891). Contains the gist of all Schliemann's books. Valuable for Troy. Burnaby, *On Horseback through Asia Minor* (1878), 2 vols. Warburton, *The Crescent and the Cross* (1887). An interesting account of travel. Cochran, *Pen and Pencil in Asia Minor* (1888). Valuable for information in regard to the industries of Asia Minor (especially for the silk industry). Wood, *Discoveries at Ephesus* (1877). An account of his excavations at Ephesus and the Temple of Diana. Gardner, *Sculptured Tombs of Hellas* (1896). See for a restoration of the Mausoleum. Other works are: Clarke, *Report on the Investigations at Assos* (1898). Clarke, Bacon, and Koldewey, *Investigations at Assos* (in print). Sterrett, *An Epigraphical Journey in Asia Minor* (1888). Sterrett, *The Wolfe Expedition to Asia Minor* (1888). Sterrett, *Inscriptions of Assos and Tralles* (1885).

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CRITICAL STUDIES IN FRENCH LITERATURE.*

V. VICTOR HUGO'S "NINETY-THREE."

BY F. M. WARREN.



HE last of Hugo's novels, is "Ninety-Three." It is also the work of his old age. For, born as he was in 1802, Hugo had already passed the threescore years and ten of the Psalmist when "Ninety-Three" saw the light in 1874. Although advanced in life, honored, wealthy, the favorite of France and of the French people, Hugo found abundant time to carry on his literary pursuits. Or rather he made time by reserving it. Every morning at an early hour he would go to his study and, standing at his high desk, he would write until noon, varying his position and resting his hand only by walking up and down the room, the window of which remained open even in the coldest days of winter. The afternoon and evening were passed in exercise in the open air and in social amusements. It was in this way, by constant daily accretions, that "Ninety-Three" took shape between December, 1872, and February, 1874, partly on the island of Guernsey, partly at Paris.

Written in his old age.

In the style of the historical novel.

In "Ninety-Three" Hugo goes back to the style of historical novels. There is something in it which reminds one of Walter Scott, something of Alexandre Dumas. There is little in it, apart from the pictures of the children, which recalls the ideas of "Les Misérables"; nothing, we could almost say, which brings up before us the stories of "Notre Dame de Paris" and "The Toilers of the Sea." In his earlier novels Hugo had laid the principal stress on the fight between good and evil in the heart of a man, and the effects of that fight on his neighbors, as in "Notre Dame de Paris," or on the fight of man with his environment, with humanity, society, the law, as in "Les Misérables," or with inanimate or animal nature as in "The Toilers of the Sea." While some of the settings of these romances had been historical, they had been so in the broader sense of presenting the life of a past generation or a class in the community, rather than in dealing with known historical events. But in "Ninety-Three" the novelist particularizes. He takes a definite period, the French Revolution, and picks out a salient event, the Vendean war.

Simplicity of plot.

The plot is simple, dramatic. It has few crises until the great climax.

In May, 1793, the battalion of French revolutionists recruited in Paris by Santerre, and called the Battalion of the Red Cap, was ordered to search Saudraie Wood in Brittany, ill famed for the assassins which it had concealed in its retreats. But it is not a murderer they unearth this time, only a poor woman, a victim of the civil war herself, with her three children, Georgette, René Jean, and Gros Alain. The battalion adopts the children. A few days after these events, on the first night of June, the English corvette *Claymore* slips silently away in the mists from the island of Jersey and makes a run for the French coast. She has on board a number of soldiers, prepared for a descent into France, and a Vendean noble, the Marquis of Lantenac, who is to take command of the scattered bands of Vendean peasants in insurrection against the government of the Revolution, and with them open the way for the landing of a British army. During the passage one of the corvette's cannon breaks loose, and before it can be mastered by its captain ruins the ship and blights the expedition. Lantenac has the gun captain shot for negligence, after having decorated him for bravery, and then goes ashore in a rowboat, manned by the cannoneer's brother. He reaches his own inheritance, he is concealed by the beggar of the estate and becomes the center of the Vendean resistance. His first military act is to order the execution of prisoners taken from the Red Cap battalion and the women with them. One of the latter is the peasant mother. Her children are led away as hostages by the Vendean.

The scene shifts. We are in Paris, the Paris of the Convention, the Paris of Marat,



* No. 1, "The Song of Roland," appeared in the October CHAUTAUQUAN; No. 2, "Montaigne and Essay Writing in France," in the November CHAUTAUQUAN; No. 3, "Tartuffe: a Typical Comedy of Molière," in the December CHAUTAUQUAN; No. 4, "Lyriste and Lyrics of Old France," in the January CHAUTAUQUAN.

Danton, and Robespierre. We are shown the intrigues of the factions. We are present at a deliberation of the triumvirate, a war of words rather than a council, an exchange of recrimination which is on the point of ending in an open quarrel when it is stopped by the entrance of a stranger to politics, the ex-priest Cimourdain. Informed by Robespierre that the royalists of the Vendée had just received a leader in the person of Lantenac, Cimourdain accepts the commission of delegate of the Committee of Public Safety to that region. He is to have absolute authority. The commander of the Revolutionary army, Cimourdain learns, is the Viscount Gauvain. Now Cimourdain had been chaplain in Lantenac's family. He had taught Gauvain, the nephew of Lantenac. And these are the men by whom the Vendean war is to be decided. Lantenac rouses the peasants. The forests of the west swarm with royalists. Gauvain leads against them the fanaticism of the Jacobin volunteers. Cimourdain follows him closely with the civil executions of the guillotine. The fortunes of war remain equal. Cruelty replies to cruelty.

Meanwhile the peasant mother, supposed to have been shot to death by Lantenac's partisans, but who is only severely wounded, is rescued by the same beggar who had concealed the marquis, and has recovered from her wounds. At once she starts out on a weary search for her children. Through pathless forests and ruined villages she wanders, asking guidance in her quest and rarely finding any, until she is directed toward the great feudal tower of La Tourgue, the former home of Lantenac and Gauvain. There the uncle, baffled by the nephew, is finally driven to earth, and a siege is begun which bids fair to end with the destruction of the castle's garrison. Already a mine is sprung which opens up the flank of the fortress. A hand-to-hand combat will finish the struggle. Its issue is certain, for against the nineteen royalists within are the forty-five hundred revolutionists without. But the royalists hold the children and it is the children that the besiegers, especially the few survivors of the Red Cap battalion, have come to get. Accordingly the garrison parleys. Sounding a trumpet, the bloody Imānus offers, in behalf of the marquis, to return the three children, provided that the garrison is allowed to go free. Otherwise the tower will be set on fire, the men will die fighting, and the innocents will perish in the flames. To this proposal Cimourdain returns a negative answer. Gauvain gives the castle twenty-four hours in which to surrender, and sends for a scaling-ladder in order to save the children.

The time of the truce has elapsed. The ladder has not yet come, but thinking it is seen in the distance, Gauvain gives the order for the assault. The soldiers enter the breach. The peasants and Lantenac hold the staircase. Fierce is the struggle until one of the Red Caps climbs the tower wall, enters the second story and takes the garrison in the rear. The survivors rally higher up, but only for a moment. A secret passage into the woods is revealed. All escape but Imānus, who protects the retreat of his comrades. And when his fight is over and his wounds have drained his strength, with a last effort he fires the train which is to consume the children who are placidly sleeping in another room of the castle. Lantenac reaches the forest. He is safe from wounds and from the guillotine. Suddenly a piercing cry rings out in the night air far above him, and he sees on the cliff over against the tower the peasant mother who has arrived at the last, but only to see her children surrounded by flames. The ladder has not arrived. It was the guillotine which Gauvain had seen in the distance. The room in which the children are sleeping is barred by an impenetrable iron door, to which the marquis alone has the key. He stops in the forest. He meditates. And he, the aristocrat, the hope of Vendée, the stony-hearted whom nothing had been able to turn from his set purpose, returns into captivity, to death, because the cry of the peasant mother has somehow reached an inner man whose existence had never before been conjectured. Retracing his steps the marquis reenters the tower, passes through his enemies, unlocks the door to the chamber, and the flames cutting off egress as soon as he has entered, he lowers a ladder left in the room and hands the children down one after the other to the soldiers who man it. Finally he too quietly descends the rounds. He reaches the bottom. "I arrest you," says Cimourdain.

The marquis of Lantenac lies in the dungeon of his ancestral castle. The guillotine on which he is to die the following day is being set up over against La Tourgue. The revolutionary monster is opposed to the feudal. Gauvain, wrapped in his commander's cloak, is pacing the dark forest. Will he allow the marquis to be guillotined? Under any other circumstances his reply would be ready. But now he hesitates. Can he allow the head of the insurrection to escape, the war to be revived with all the bloodshed and executions that are sure to follow in its train? Can he fail France, beset by foes without and foes within? On the other hand can he allow the Revolution to be sullied? Shall it be said that a follower of a king could forsake all his traditions, and even his cause, at the cry of humanity, and an adherent of the Republic be deaf to its call? Would not an apology be necessary forever after? He orders the guard to open the dungeon. He enters. He endures the revilings of his uncle, his political enemy, unmoved. He throws his cloak over him and pushes him out into the darkness, and when the accused is summoned in the morning before Cimourdain's tribunal it is Gauvain who appears. The law is plain. He has aided in the escape of his country's enemy. He must die. He ascends the scaffold. In vain the soldiers beg Cimourdain for mercy. The law must rule. But as the head of Gauvain drops into the basket of the guillotine a pistol shot rings out, and Cimourdain who has done his duty as an officer pays his final debt of love to his pupil, whose life he had twice saved, and this third time taken.

The plot of "Ninety-Three," as we see, is forceful and tragic. It is

Forceful and tragic plot.

a warfare of principles embodied in the characters of the marquis, his nephew the viscount, and the unfrocked priest. Since these principles were at the bottom of the civil war in which their exponents were the prominent actors we are bound to expect violence, fierceness and cruelty. But the whole book is not given up to picturing the tragic side of life. Like the other novels of Hugo there are in "Ninety-Three" both digressions and contrasts. The digressions are mainly political and social, and therefore unite in enforcing the general idea of the story, which they cannot be said to do in "Les Misérables" or "Notre Dame de Paris." The contrasts here are also quite closely bound up with the main plot. The episodes in which the beggar Tellmarch appears illustrate the devastating character of a war without mercy or quarter, and the consequent suffering of the poor and weak. The scenes of the mother and children point the same moral, and afford grateful relief as well from the narrative of bloodshed. Hugo was always fond of bringing children into his writings. A considerable number of his poems are devoted to them, and to them he dedicated one whole volume, "The Art of Being a Grandfather." At the time when he was writing "Ninety-Three" he had taken his orphaned grandchildren into his own home. So that we are not surprised at such sentences as these:

"The waking of children is an opening of flowers; it seems as though a perfume comes from these fresh souls."

"What a bird sings, a child chatters. It is the same hymn. Hymn indistinct, lisped, deep. . . . The most sublime song we can hear on the earth is the stammering of the human soul on the lips of childhood."

"The murmur of the child is both more and less than speech; it is not notes and yet it is a song; it is not syllables and yet it is a language; this murmur had its beginning in heaven and will not have its end on the earth."

Main idea of the novel.

The grace of early childhood and a mother's love are the foils, then, for the main idea of "Ninety-Three." Unlike the other novels of Hugo there is no love story here, the love of man for woman or woman for man. The love of Cimourdain for Gauvain is the affection of a master for his pupil, and in addition a deeper, a more tender feeling, like that of a father for his son. But it is an affection which is controlled by the sense of duty, and does not soften the harshness of the terrible events.

Descriptions of nature.

The descriptions in "Ninety-Three" are quite as closely connected with the main idea of the work as the episodes on child life and motherhood. We run across a description of nature, but it is a nature fitted for the war of surprises and sudden attacks followed by as sudden and stealthy retreats, ferocious men swarming out of a forest and, their deed of violence done, engulfed in its shades immediately, disappearing beneath its leaves as silently and as quickly as pebbles drop into the water's depths, leaving no trace of their passage. Lantenac, just landed, witnesses one of these transformations:

"It was the charming hour which the old peasant tongue of Normandy calls the peep-o'-day. You could hear the finches and the hedge sparrows twittering. . . . He went along a steep slope covered with furze in bloom. . . . This slope had for a summit one of those hillocks which are called 'snouts' in that country. At the foot of the slope the view disappeared at once beneath the trees. The leaves were as though dipped in light. All nature rejoiced in the deep joy of the morning. All of a sudden this landscape became terrible. It was like an ambush breaking out. A something like a water-spout, made up of savage yells and gunshots, rushed down on these fields and woods full of sunbeams. . . . It was sudden and lugubrious, the quick passage from calmness to madness, an explosion of hell in the heart of dawn, horror without transition."

Portrayal of desperate struggles.

Besides the descriptions of Breton and Vendean landscapes there are descriptions of darker things, the conflicts of armed men, the gloomy feudal castle of La Tourgue, the sinister framework of the guillotine; and at the beginning of the story the well-known narration of the struggle of the captain of the cannon with his cannon, the fight of mind with matter, of intelligence with blind strength.

The last book of "Ninety-Three" sums up the idea of the whole work. Of the three leading characters, Lantenac, defeated, is confined in the dungeon of La Tourgue, Gauvain and Cimourdain, triumphant, are brought to the real test of their political and social beliefs. Hugo gives the floor first to Lantenac. As Gauvain enters his prison to save him from Cimourdain's justice, he turns on his nephew and in an impassioned, ironical harangue presents the royalist view of the Revolution and the causes which led up to it. Gauvain's only answer was to set the prisoner free. But this act, performed without answering arguments, opened the way for Gauvain's trial and the juxtaposition of his principles with those of Cimourdain. These two men typify the two ideas of the Revolution, or, as Hugo had put it in a previous chapter, the ex-priest and his pupil are the "Two Poles of Truth." It is not Gauvain, however, who opens the debate. It is Sergeant Radoub of the bloodthirsty Red Cap battalion. The guilt of Gauvain is incomprehensible to him. His mere trial is turning Radoub's notion of the Revolution upside down. And after the private in the ranks has spoken, after he has shown the confusion in his mind regarding the application of the truths he had espoused, Hugo clarifies the situation by introducing the general and the delegate, the one the upholder of idealism in the Revolutionary movement, the other the advocate of the real, the letter of the law.

Summing up the work.

The scene is again laid in the dungeon of La Tourgue. Gauvain is now the captive and Cimourdain the visitor. But Gauvain is calm, the calmness of a duty done. Cimourdain is feverish, distracted by the hostile claims of duty and affection. Gauvain defines the work of the age:

Programs of Reform.

"Great things are forming. What the Revolution does at this present moment is mysterious. Behind the visible work there is the work invisible. One hides the other. The visible work is savage, the work invisible is sublime. I distinguish all very clearly at this instant. It is strange and beautiful. We had to use the materials of the past. Hence this extraordinary '93. Under a scaffold of barbarism is being built a temple of civilization."

Cimourdain is not satisfied with this indefiniteness. He wishes certain reforms that are tangible, proportional taxation, obligatory military service, leveling of ranks, and over all the law. Gauvain prefers to this program the republic of the ideal. To a general conscription he prefers peace; to charitable relief, the destruction of want; to proportional taxation, no taxes at all. Let every one work. Let all the ground be tilled.

"France today gives its peasants but four meat dinners a year; well cultivated it could support three hundred million men, all Europe. Utilize nature, that immense auxiliary so disdained. . . . What is the ocean? An enormous force lost. How stupid the earth is not to employ the ocean."

But to Cimourdain such ideas are like dreams. And when Gauvain adds to them the notion of the equality of the sexes, he cries aloud in protest. Gauvain, however, is undismayed by the opposition of his old master. Their parts have changed. He is the instructor now. He favors progress, the new tree succeeding the old. When rights are once acquired, then wages must be determined. And rising higher and higher in his prophet's flight he unfolds Hugo's doctrine of the superiority of society over nature, of organized mankind over the human savage:

"Society is nature sublimated. I wish everything which is missing from the bee-hives, everything lacking to the ant-hills, buildings, arts, poetry, heroes, geniuses. To bear eternal burdens is not the law of man. No more pains, no more slaves, no more convicts, no more lost souls! I want each of the attributes of man to be a symbol of civilization and a patron of progress. I want liberty of mind, equality of heart, fraternity of soul. No! no more yokes! Man is made, not to drag chains along, but to spread his wings. No more the man-reptile. I want the transfiguration of the larva into the butterfly. I want the earthworm changed into a living flower and fly away. I want—"

And Gauvain's utterance stopped, not finding words to express his ideas, those ideas of progress and amelioration of human destiny which Hugo would have us find in his prose epic of the great Revolution.

Hugo's ideas of progress.

THE INNER LIFE OF THE CHEVALIER BAYARD.*

("The knight without fear and without reproach.")

⊗ ⊗ BY VINCENT VAN MARTER BEEDE. ⊗ ⊗

Never would he serve but his own prince, under whom he did not acquire great benefits: many more were bestowed on him from elsewhere in his lifetime. But he ever said that he would die to uphold the public welfare of his country. Never could one offer him a commission that he would refuse, and he was offered some exceeding strange. But because he ever had God before his eyes, He aided him to maintain his honor; and therein, even to the day of his decease, no one deprived him of the point of an aiglet.—*The Loyal Servitor*.¹

Without justice, all empires, realms, and provinces are forests full of brigands.—*Saying of Bayard*.



HAT most charming biographer of the Good Knight, "The Loyal Servitor," introduces his beloved master to the reader as a doting father presents his son to the new headmaster. The parent owns that his boy is not faultless, but urges that the lad is incapable of lying, would sooner stretch his hand in the fire than curse, and would hesitate, by reason of his rarified honor, to read so much as the title of a "crib." All down the years Bayard has had love-blind friends; and he deserves them. At this day we can but long for a sincere acquaintance with a man who was tempted as we are tempted,—with Bayard the Knight Erring. The student of this "adopted son of Dame Courtesy" does not precisely welcome a slip of the pen on the part of "The Loyal Servitor" and others; yet for the sake of truth Bayard's lapses are not without avail; nor do they displace a letter in that just phrasing, "*sans reproche*." The inner life of the chevalier must be traced through the restless alarms of warfare. Bayard slept in his armor; we cannot picture him as introspective in the silence of the woods. The wonder of the man is that his inner life was so calm and Christian during those years of the couched lance.

Bayard was the last of the knights,—a fair white blossom sprung from rotting chivalry. He was an actual Sir Lancelot,—nay, an Arthur himself. Steeped in the essence of knighthood as defined in its perfection, his acts were bound to be spectacular, and at times pharisaical. Yet Bayard amply requited sanctimoniousness by alms given in secret. His devotion to women was exquisitely courteous—and always well-timed. His courtesies bred, by their absolute tactfulness, a limitless admiration. We cannot do justice to the character of Bayard until we throw ourselves boldly into the fifteenth-century manner of life. A glance at Tighe Hopkins's "An Idler in Old France," proves beneficial.

We make no mistake in regarding Bayard as "The Eternal Laurel" of prowess on the field of battle. His courage was as resourceful as it was perfect. "He had the three excellencies of the accomplished knight,—the attack of the greyhound, the wild boar's defense, and in pursuit, the speed of the wolf." He was fierce before a standing, and gentle before a fallen foe. This wondrous gentleness was a pure beam that shone steadily during his forty-eight years from the lamp of his inner life.

Pierre Bayard de Terrail was born, 1476, in "the garden of Dauphiny." His fighting ancestors were of the renowned gentry distinguished above all others in France by the name of the royal color, "The Scarlet."

⊗ ⊗

¹ "The Loyal Servitor" is by some identified with Jacques de Mailles, archer-secretary to Bayard. "The History of Bayard" by "The Loyal Servitor" is thought to have been first printed in 1527.

*This is the fifth CHAUTAUQUAN study of the Inner Life of Historic Figures in France and Greece. Fénelon appeared in October; Pascal was published in November; Madame Guyon appeared in December; Corot's life was studied in January.

The Knight Erring.

The flower of chivalry.

Prowess as a warrior.

Renowned ancestry.

When Pierre, the second of four sons, was thirteen, his father was eighty. Conscious of approaching death, Aymond desired his boys to name their choices of profession. Two looked to the church which sheltered their distinguished uncles; another had no wish to leave the château; but Pierre answered: "The pursuit of arms is the one thing in this world that I most desire; and I trust, by God's help, to bring thee no dishonor." The old man replied, with tears, "My child, may God give thee His grace. Thou bearest much resemblance, in face and figure, to thy grandfather, who was one of the most accomplished knights in Christendom."

The boy was slender and delicate-featured, with a light complexion, black eyes, and scant, yellow hair. Here is strangeness: A gentle child, nothing of a bully, who yet adores arms and warfare. His uncle, the bishop of Grenoble, settled him as page with the Duke of Savoy.

Training for
kighthood.

Bayard's dexterous management of his horse won from the king his favor and the nickname "Piquet" — "The Spur." He entered into the royal household under the care of the Lord de Ligny, a commander as able as Charles was weak. At seventeen Bayard was created a man-at-arms, a prized honor which enrolled him among the picked knights of France, and entitled him to three archers, a page and an esquire. After the tournament of Aire, he plunged into the war against Naples, and in his first charge at Fornova "carried all before him. The king, on being informed thereof, presented him with five hundred crowns. In return for which the good chevalier brought unto him the standard of a mounted force which he had captured whilst pursuing them."

The chevalier's unexampled deeds of arms continued to the day of his death, and were worthy of a crusade. Bayard was the faithful retainer of three sovereigns who scrambled for the states of Italy as children scramble for pennies. Spain, Germany, France, now were allies, now treacherous enemies engaged in feverish, illogical assaults. Bayard refused to fawn upon princes; consequently he never served as marshal or generalissimo. His power of bringing out the utmost vigor in his men was only exceeded by his brilliant scoutings and ambushing; his resistless charges, by his mild treatment of prisoners.

Bravery on the
battle-field.

"Piquet," as a newly elected man-at-arms, had the audacity to touch the shield of a tested knight, Sir Claude Vaudrey. This act signified a challenge to joust at the lists. A laugh went round the camp at the boy's expense. Pierre had plenty of assurance, but neither horse nor accouterments. His bosom friend, Bellabre, suggested:

His first joust.

"Have you not your uncle, the great Abbot of Ainay? I vow to God that we will go to him, and if he shall not furnish what is needed, we will seize his staff and miter!"

"By my faith!" said the abbot, "you can seek elsewhere, for one to lend you money. That which was given by the founders of the abbey was devoted to God's service, not to dispense in jousts and tournaments!" After a time he softened enough to continue: "Well, there are two hundred crowns; I shall also write one line unto Laurencin to furnish thee, Bayard, with habiliments and all that will be needful." The one line these boys construed into eight hundred francs' value in clothes! The abbot stormed when the bill was presented; but Piquet won his joust. His modest rejoinder to floods of praise was: "Friends, gentlemen, the praise accorded to me is undeserved, and I am still unworthy of it; but I trust that it may please God, with your help, that I may yet become one of the many great men." Youthful folly and a touch of smugness, one is inclined to say. The stilted words went with plumes and neck-chains.

The French had lost Milan, and regained it. The Lord de Ligny purposely terrified the inhabitants by spreading the rumor that his men were to be granted full privilege of booty. Fifty burghers in sackcloth set before the conqueror tables piled with gold and silver drinking-vessels.

The Lord de Ligny affected fury. "If I served you right," he declared, "I should reward your turncoat policy by hanging you all at your windows. Away with you!" His kind heart could not hold out against their tears. "The entreaties of Lieutenant Louis D'Ars," he added, "have secured your pardon. Here, Standard-Bearer Piquet, accept this plate for your kitchen." "I thank you, my lord," returned Bayard, "but the goods of such unworthy people would bring me ill-luck." Forthwith he distributed the vessels among the company, keeping not so much as a goblet for himself.

Reliance on prayer.

Bayard had captured a Spaniard named Don Alonzo Sotomaiore. This knight violated his parole, returned to his camp, and complained of ill-treatment at the hands of Bayard. The truth was that the chevalier had shared his very garments with his hostage. According to the code of honor, the chevalier challenged Sotomaiore to mortal combat. Bayard's first act on entering the ring of stones was to pray. "Stretching himself on the ground, he kissed the earth, and in rising made the sign of the cross (he always did the same at home). Then marched he straight towards his enemy, with as assured a gait as if he had been in a palace, dancing among fair ladies." Soon Don Alonzo's second cried out: "Lord de Bayard, thou hast overcome—and overmuch, my lord, for the honor of Spain." Bayard knelt in prayer again. "Then kissed he the earth thrice." "Truly, I wish," said Bayard, "that, with mine honor saved, Don Alonzo might be living."

A fifteenth-century love affair.

As a page in the household of the Lord de Ligny, Bayard fell in love with a little maid in waiting. "I am young," Pierre told her, "but I will make myself famous, and some day we shall marry." "Alas!" replied the girl, "I am poor, and you may reasonably pretend to the greatest. In accepting your affection, I destroy your hopes. That I love you, I cannot disguise; but let us subdue the sentiment to a sincere friendship. Remember, dear Terrail, what is due to me, a protégée of the duchess." "I will violate no hospitality," said Bayard, "but I will not renounce my hope. I shall tell the duchess of our love." The little affair was broken up, for Pierre was summoned to the court at Lyons. Years afterward he visited the widowed duchess at Carignan, Piedmont. Here he rejoiced to find his first love still a retainer,—but she had married. Nevertheless, she assured Bayard that her love for him had been nourished day by day. In the fifteenth century the "mystic liaison" was a permitted and a commendable phase of love. With the full approval of the Lord de Fluxas, Bayard made advances to the Lady Fluxas as he had done years before. Bayard, paying court to "hands and lips," did not allow himself to become jealous of milord. He overlooked the marriage. With all its absurdity, there is something rare and clean about this mature love-match. Bayard craved as a boon his mistress's sleeve, and a winner in the lists at Carignan, he implored that the Lady Fluxas, whose sleeve had brought about his triumph, might award the prize. "Since my Lord of Bayard," replied the Lady Fluxas, "attributes to my sleeve the merits of his victory, I shall keep it, and wear it all my life, for his sake. With regard to the ruby, since he will not accept it, I give it to the Lord of Mondragon, who, after him, is thought to have done the best."

Merciful to the defenseless.

At the recapture of the town of Brescia by the French, Bayard was stabbed in the thigh. The pike-head broke off in his wound, and his life was despaired of. He was carried to the house of a wealthy woman whose husband was in hiding from the French. The woman had concealed her daughters in the hay-loft, and implored mercy of the chevalier. "Madam," he said in agony, "I know not whether I shall escape from my wound, but as long as I live neither to you nor to your daughters shall any offense be done. Have your husband sought for. I will send to fetch him, in order that he may have no harm."

At the end of five weeks the chevalier buckled on his armor, though his wound was not fully healed. The lady of the house set a steel box before him, saying: "Here is a small present: wilt thou be pleased to accept it?" "Madam," laughed Bayard, "how many ducats are there?" "My lord, there are but twenty-five hundred; but if thou be not content, we will provide more abundantly." "By my faith, Madam, I thank thee," answered Bayard, "but I must refuse thy ducats. Dost thou insist on the present? Very well. Mesdemoiselles, I give you a thousand ducats each on which to marry. The remaining five hundred ducats I reserve to distribute among needy convents." "O flower of chivalry," replied the lady, "with whom no man can compare!"

After a more severe wound, Bayard was tenderly nursed at the château of his uncle, the Bishop of Grenoble. The poor knight went into delirium and prayed unceasingly. "Have I, O merciful God," he sobbed, "passed through so many and such great dangers from the shot of artillery, the thrust of pike, the stroke of the sword and battle-axe, in assaults, in encounters, in all varieties of conflict,—have I escaped, by Thy grace and mercy, from these dangers, only to expire like a maid on her couch?"

In suffering.

"Among so many," records "The Loyal Servitor," "it was not possible that there should not be some just person whom the Lord would be pleased to hear; and this was plainly manifested in the gradual diminution of Bayard's fever."

The Milanese were now aided by the Marquis de Pescara, the traitorous Duke de Bourbon, and six thousand Germans supplied by Venice. Bayard was serving under a doltish leader named Bonnivet who arranged to combine his forces with twelve thousand Swiss approaching in two bodies. Bourbon opposed one of these forces, de Medici the other. Thus, help being snatched from the French, they were left to brace themselves against the shock of an attack from all sides. Bonnivet, wounded by a musket ball, gave over his command to Bayard, groaning: "Thou alone can'st save the army!" "Too late!" responded the chevalier. "But my life is my country's. My soul I commend to God." He charged at the head of his knights, with the artillery fire focusing upon him. Chivalry was dying; the lance was shattered by the ball. The stone shot of a harquebus broke the chevalier's spine. It was curious that Bayard should meet his death at the mouth of the weapon he held in utmost contempt. "Jesus! Mon Dieu!" he cried.

Bayard's last battle.

"He took his sword by the hilt, and kissed the guard, in token of the cross, saying aloud the while, '*Miserere mei, Deus*,' Forthwith he became all pale, as if he had given up the ghost, and he thought to fall. But he had still the courage to grasp the bow of his saddle, and he remained thus until a young gentleman, his steward, helped him to dismount, and laid him beneath a tree."

The Marquis of Pescara wept over the Good Knight as though he had been the Spaniard's brother. "Would to God, O noble Lord of Bayard," said the Marquis, "though it had cost me a quart of my blood without my meeting death, that I were not to eat flesh for two years, and could hold thee my prisoner, in good health! The great praise which my people have given to you when they have said *Muchos grisonos, y pocos Bayardos* was not wrongly granted; for since I have had knowledge of arms, I have not heard of a knight who hath approached thee in all virtues."

Loved by his enemies.

"Alas; perfidious Fury, Death!" lamented Bayard's companions, "What harm did this perfect and virtuous chevalier unto thee? Under what shepherd shall we henceforth go to the field? There was not a man who was not as confident in his presence as in the strongest fortress."

The chevalier whispered to his steward: "All the regret I have to die is this, that I have not done my *devoir* as well as I ought." His last words were: "My Father and Savior, I pray Thee that it may please Thee to have no regard to the faults committed by me; and that Thy great pity may rather be given me than the rigor of Thy justice."

End of Required Reading.

"Many grays but few bays; that is: many asses but few steeds."



COUNSELORS OF THE CHAUTAUQUA LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC CIRCLE.

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THE CLASS OF 1901.

With the month of January fairly behind us, and spring only one month ahead, albeit that month is March, the 1901's will very properly emulate the example of all good housekeepers and make ready for the coming summer. Are you, good 1901, to be a graduate at some one of the many summer assemblies? Then trim your lamp early and don't come up to the Golden Gate quite out of breath! Are you up with your reading, but perhaps drifting along and not putting much thought into it? Then try filling out the memoranda. You will find the questions wonderful quickeners of your mental faculties. And when on Recognition Day you receive your diploma with its seals which represent careful work, you will feel as the gymnast does when he is conscious of having grown by exercise. Are you a discouraged Chautauquan? There have been many of them, but often they have been classed also with the conquerors. It was an old Greek sage who wrote:

*ἀπαντα τὰ ζητούμεν' ἐξευρίσκειται,
 ἀν μὴ προαποστής μηδὲ τὸν πόνον φύγῃς.*

"All things which are sought are found,—
 If thou dost not give up too soon and dost not shrink
 from the toil."

CHAUTAUQUA STUDENTS IN INDIA.

The Class of 1904 is already represented in many foreign countries, and in British India a circle of three members is working enthusiastically. Our correspondent, Miss Rawson, writes from Mahoba, Northwest Province, as follows: "I am delighted with this year's course and have persuaded one of our teachers in the mission to join me in the reading. Our town is entirely native, the

only English-speaking people being in the same house with me. There are but four of us and three are already interested in the Chautauqua work. The reading will prove a great blessing to us in this Indian jungle." A picturesque bungalow is the home of the mission. There have been many C. L. S. C. readers in India and even a Chautauqua Assembly in the Himalayas has been suggested.



CHAUTAUQUA TEMPLE AT COUDERSPORT.

Hope is the thing with feathers
 That perches in the soul
 And sings the tune without the words
 And never stops at all.

—Emily Dickinson.

The picture of the Chautauqua temple at Coudersport represents ideals realized, hopes shattered and courage undismayed. The president of the circle, Mrs. James L. Knox, sends us the following story of the work accomplished in this thoroughly Chautauquan community, which may inspire others to develop the club-house idea in towns which especially need it. Perhaps some Chautauqua circle may be able to give the Coudersport people the "idea" for which they are looking. The past history of the town makes it probable that if the desired ideas do not come from without, they will sooner or later be evolved from within.

In the year 1881 a C. L. S. C. was first organized in Coudersport consisting of ten members. This organization met for three years; then the work seems to have dropped until 1891, when, through the earnest endeavor of our county superintendent's wife, Mrs. H. H. Kies, the C. L. S. C. was once more in active operation. The meetings were then held at the homes of the members until 1895 when the organization had grown to such an extent that no ordinary house could accommodate those who were interested and active members. When the fall of 1895 opened, the parlors of the Baptist church were rented, and a large and enthusiastic circle met

every Monday evening. Nothing was allowed to interfere with that one evening of the week, for it was well understood throughout the entire community that it was Chautauqua night. This same year was formed the first C. Y. F. R. U. in Coudersport. The following year another C. Y. F. R. U. was started among the young boys, each of these societies holding weekly meetings. With all these new organizations there seemed



CHAUTAUQUA BUILDING AT COUDERSPORT, PA.

to be great need of a building of our own — a Chautauqua home,—and many were the plans proposed, many the air castles built. At last a way seemed open to us. The Baptist people were to build a new church, and as their parlors had been our home for a season, why not purchase these? Land was leased us for a period of years, but instead of this small venture we had grown bolder in our ideas and at last purchased the entire church, parlors and all, allowing the Baptist congregation to use it for church purposes until their new edifice was completed. Then we set to work with a will and November 28, 1899, the building was formally opened to the public; no longer the old Baptist church but as the new Chautauqua temple, bright and attractive with newly decorated ceilings, new carpets, a fine piano, choice engravings on the walls, and everything quite in keeping. The main auditorium would seat four hundred, while the parlors in the rear were to be used for the regular meetings of the various societies which then numbered six, consisting of the S. H. G., the C. L. S. C. and four C. Y. F. R. U.'s—the Excelsiors, Kimballs, Thompsonians, and Firesides.

On February 20, 1900, the building, with its contents, was burned to the ground. The hard work of many weeks, months and years was consumed in a few short moments. Not only the Chautauqua people felt the loss, but the entire community mourned with us and expressed their sympathy in a very substantial manner by starting a subscription right then and there, so that through the smoke and blackened ruins there still seemed a ray of hope for something in the future. We now have purchased a lot, but alas, the weather will not permit of holding our meetings in the open air, and for lack of funds we cannot build. Cannot some enthusiastic Chautauquan give us an idea?

“He is not truly well bred whose speech lacks breeding.”

A prominent essayist recently put the very pertinent question, “why is it that so many of us get our hats from Paris and our speech from Chimmie Fadden?” Perhaps the correct answer might be, because we usually get what we want! Yet even the most

careless among us cherishes an admiration for good English. The unaffected elegance of a cultivated speaker holds us spellbound, in spite of the atmosphere of slipshod expressions to which we have accustomed ourselves, and in our better moments we long for his charm of manner. Perhaps this is not so impossible as it may appear. If he secured his graces of speech by some royal road, which is doubtful, some of his ancestors certainly struggled against the insidious wiles of slang and achieved a victory for themselves and for their children. If this be true, why may we not also raise the standard of culture in the world by helping to create an atmosphere in which interesting ideas, a courteous manner, voices pitched in a low key, and good English may easily flourish. A Chautauqua circle may be made a splendid training school for good English if its members keep in mind the suggestion of the practical Mrs. Ruggles that “it is not so much what you says, as how you says it.”

Of course we cannot expect to attain our desires at a single bound. Therefore we shall do well to watch ourselves day by day. A student of English who was practising the art of writing book reviews referred to his facility in discovering plots, in these terms: “I caught on to the plot and nailed it.” When in his growing literary career he finds himself in need of forcible English of a more elegant type, will it be strange if it does not come easily?



A GREEK SCHOOLBOY.

The Greek habit of portraying scenes of everyday life upon earthenware vases has



MARATHON — MOUND TO ATHENIAN PATRIOTS.

(From “From America to the Orient.” Copyright, 1899, by Honeyman & Co.)

been a priceless boon to the historian who from these imperishable records can read the story of a lost age as clearly as if it were told in printers’ ink. In the museum of Berlin is to be found an antique cup on



(From a cup, signed by the painter Douris, discovered at Caere, and now in the Museum of Berlin.)

LESSON IN POETRY AND MUSIC IN AN ATHENIAN CLASS.

which is painted this interesting picture of schoolboy life. An interpreter describes it thus:

"At the right sits, cross-legged, the pedagogue, who has just brought in his pupil. The boy stands before his teacher of poetry and recites his lesson. The master in his chair, holds in his hand a roll which he is unfolding. Above these three figures are hung on the wall a cup, a lyre, and the leather case of flutes. To the bag is attached the small box containing mouth-pieces of different kinds for the flute. Farther on the pupil is receiving a lesson in music; master and pupil are both seated on seats without backs. The master, with head erect, looks at the pupil who, bent over his lyre, seems absorbed in his playing. Above are hanging a basket, a lyre, and a cup."

Students who have access to college or other libraries can find many interesting illustrations of vase paintings. Duruy's history of Greece, a somewhat recent work in six large volumes, translated from the French, makes a specialty of pictures of vases, coins and other objects of interest.

GREEK VALENTINES.

After associating with Homer and other Greek poets for a month or more, it will not be strange if some of the circles feel impelled to test the Muses on their own account. As an outlet for such pent-up emotions, perhaps a "postlude" to the circle's program might be given for the reading of Greek valentines. The element of romance so abounds in Greek history and legend that the most prosaic members may be expected to woo the Muse without difficulty, and even the most harsh-sounding names can be made to yield quite surprising rhythmic effects. We recall one such effort:

"Hickory dickory,
Oh Terpsichore."

The method of assigning subjects for treat-

ment may vary. Those who feel disposed to write Hector's valentine to Andromache or that of Briseis to Achilles, might be allowed liberty of choice, or a committee of two could pair off suitable characters and assign them to different members. There is a wide field to choose from,—between deities, heroes, and actual men and women. The Round Table editor will be exceedingly glad to see any notable examples of the poet's art which may result.

THE LOST TREASURES OF THE ACROPOLIS.

In one corner of the Acropolis at Athens stands a small building known as the Acropolis Museum. Here are kept the treasures found ten years ago when the top of the Acropolis was carefully excavated. If Alexander the Great could walk into the museum today he would find curiosities as new to him as they are to us, for when and how these treasures of the past were buried is easily explained, and in the notes on page 547 will be found an account from Gardner's "New Chapters in Greek History." The accompanying picture seems grotesque, but to quote from Professor Tarbell:

"It has a special interest, not merely on account of its exceptionally large size—it is over six and a half feet high—but because we probably know the name and something more of its sculptor. If, as seems altogether likely, the statue belongs upon the inscribed pedestal upon which it is placed in the illustration, then we have before us an original work of that Antenor who was commissioned by the Athenian people, soon after the expulsion of the tyrant Hippias and his family in 510, to make a group in bronze of Harmodius and Aristogiton. This statue might, of course, be one of his earlier productions.

"At first sight these pictures strike many untrained observers as simply grotesque. . . . But they soon become absorbingly interesting and then delightful.

The strange-looking, puzzling garments, which cling to the figure behind and fall in formal folds in front, the elaborately, often impossibly, arranged hair, the gracious countenances, a certain quaintness and refinement and unconsciousness of self — these things exercise over us an endless fascination.

"Who are these mysterious beings? We do not know. There are those who would see in them, or in some of them, representations of Athena, who was not only a martial goddess, but also patroness of spinning and weaving and all cunning handiwork. To others, including the writer, they seem, in their manifold variety, to be daughters of Athens. But, if so, what especial claim these women had to be set up in effigy upon Athena's holy hill is an unsolved riddle."

In this connection we would remind members who want to do some supplementary work, that the little volume on Greek art referred to will be found a most delightful companion to the history and literature. Greek art is not an impossible study even for those who think they have no "art faculty." Studied with the history it not only makes that more intelligible, but unconsciously trains our artistic sense and cultivates our taste so that we find ourselves more and more able to appreciate and enjoy the highest types of beauty. This book has been placed on one of the garnet seal supplementary courses for this year, announcement of which will be found on another page of this magazine.



STATUE BY ANTENOR (?) IN THE ACROPOLIS MUSEUM.

(From Tarbell's "History of Greek Art." The Macmillan Co. Used by permission.)

"THE HOUSE OF THE DOUBLE AXE."

While we are renewing our acquaintance with Cadmus and his alphabet, Theseus and the Minotaur, and Minos, the famous Cretan lawgiver, we read in our nineteenth-century newspapers that archæologists have discovered the veritable palace of Minos, with long treasure chambers which may pass for the labyrinth, and in the decorations of the palace, the head of a bull! The new story of the palace of Minos, though it does not tell

us of a Minotaur nor of a crooked labyrinth, is almost as fascinating as the old one. Professor Dyer calls the palace "the house of the double axe," for all through it, and in certain chambers especially, this device is conspicuously carved, and this he tells us was the symbol of Zeus. Moreover we are told that the original meaning of the Greek word from which labyrinth is taken, was "double axe." But our meaning has come down to us from the Athenian fairy tale which was designed to glorify the Attic hero Theseus and defame the character of wide-ruling Minos. One of the most wonderful discoveries in this connection relates to the alphabet, and will probably necessitate the rewriting of a good deal of the history of this subject. The story is too long to print here, but a most interesting account by Professor Dyer will be found in *The Nation* for August 2, 1900, the same article being reprinted in the *Scientific American Supplement* for September 22, 1900.

If an appreciation of the fine arts counts for anything in culture, it is worth remembering that poetry is the most accessible of the arts. . . . In every hour that can be won from toil here is a House Beautiful with its open ivory gate. Nay, at any time and anywhere, if you can but murmur the lines you love, the fadeless pictures rise and Pan's pipes are once more playing! — *Bliss Perry*.

THE C. L. S. C. IN SWITZERLAND.

The Chautauqua Reading Circle has a dawning career of usefulness before it in Switzerland, the present home of Chancellor Vincent. One of the prominent schoolmasters of Zurich, Professor Andrew Baumgartner, has enrolled himself as a member of the Class of 1904 and has published an excellent article on Chautauqua in one of the Zurich papers. A Swiss branch of the C. L. S. C. is among the possibilities.

ENGLAND AS A PIONEER IN INDIA.

The relation of England to her great Indian empire forms a leading chapter this month in our study of the Rivalry of Nations. It brings to our attention anew, and to some of us for the first time, the remarkable career of Lord Clive whose work for England and for India is one of the most fascinating chapters in the history of the Anglo-Saxon race. Macaulay says of him: "His name stands high on the roll of conquerors. But it is found in a better list — in the list of those who have done and suffered much for mankind." The problems with which he had to deal were most intricate, involving political,

commercial and moral questions to such a degree that only a man of striking abilities could have grappled with them. There are several biographies of Clive, but Macaulay's essay written for *The Edinburgh Review* in 1840, will always remain a classic. Fortunately it is accessible to most of our readers, and those who can do so will be well



LORD CLIVE.

(From "Lord Clive," by Sir Alexander John Arbuthnot, in the series "Builders of Greater Britain." Longmans, Green & Co.)

repaid by a careful reading of this literary masterpiece. Aside from the questions relating to India, the character of Clive himself will be found one well worth studying.

WORD STUDIES.

Many word studies will come up incidentally this month in the required readings. These are in most cases explained by the authors of the books, but it would be a very profitable exercise to jot down these words,

with the author's explanation and fasten them up where they can be seen in some of our daily walks, till we are quite sure we shall remember their ancestry when we meet them again. Here are some of them: *Panic, rhapsody, elegy, melody, strophe*, to which may be added *sybarite, ramp, satiric, hegemony* and *democracy*. A word-study exercise might be tried in the circles reviewing these words and those noted last month.

The following search questions will be of interest to the circles which wish to make a careful study of "A Pinch of Attic Salt," published in the December CHAUTAUQUAN:

1. Give the roots and the definitions of all italicized words in this article.
2. Give other words derived from the same roots.
3. Give the origin of the word *alphabet*.
4. Name the letters of the Greek alphabet.
5. Name the Muses.
6. Give an English word derived from *Muses*.
7. State any facts you know about the papyrus.
8. Of what is *priests* a contraction?
9. In what direction did the Aryans usually travel? Why?
10. Where is "The Road to Santiago"?
11. Where is the Mincius? Mantua?
12. Who wrote "The Georgics"?
13. Who was "The Cappadocian Saint"?
14. Give the root of *somersault*, *Sault Ste. Marie*, *insult* and *desultory*.
15. Give the genealogy of Sophia of Zell.
16. Name her descendants through the seventh generation.
17. How has the rise and fall of the Nile influenced the progress of civilization?
18. In what respect did Hannibal resemble Nelson?
19. What similar feat did he and Napoleon perform?
20. Show that some of the italicized mythological words are of Latin origin.
21. Where may kingfishers be seen at Chautauqua?
22. What is the *Decalogue*?
23. Give *antonyms* for some words used in this article.
24. Why did the pentagram fail to keep Mephistopheles out of Faust's room?
25. Who wrote "Philip, my king"?
26. What is an *egis*?
27. Is the word *enthuse* of good repute?
28. What is an *eremite*?
29. Give the root of *sarcophagus*, of *acid*.
30. What is the *rhys toxicodendron*?
31. Name a one-wheeled vehicle.
32. What is a protagonist?
33. Give the root of *angle*.
34. Who was Demosthenes?
35. Who wrote "Lo-thair"?
36. Who wrote "the steadfast starre," etc.?
37. When was the compass invented?
38. What flower appears on its face? Why?
39. What is a tritagonist?
40. What were the Chelidonia?
41. Define *chlorophyll* and *xanthophyll*.
42. Where is Beauvais?
43. Who are "The Beef-eaters"?
44. Relate the story of Giles Corey.
45. Give the etymology of *colander*, *lavender* and *varlet*.

OUTLINE OF READING AND PROGRAMS.

C. L. S. C. MOTTOES.

"We Study the Word and the Works of God."

"Let us Keep our Heavenly Father in the Midst."

"Never be Discouraged."

C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS.

OPENING DAY—October 1.

BRYANT DAY—November, second Sunday.

MILTON DAY—December 9.

COLLEGE DAY—January, last Thursday.

LANIER DAY—February 3.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.

LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.

SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.

ADDISON DAY—May 1.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.

INAUGURATION DAY—August, first Sunday after first Tuesday.

ST. PAUL'S DAY—August, second Saturday after first Tuesday.

RECOGNITION DAY—August, third Wednesday.

OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING.

JANUARY 29—FEBRUARY 5—

In *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*: The Rivalry of Nations. Chap. 16. The Inner Life of Corot.

Required Book: Grecian History. Chaps. 4 and 5.

FEBRUARY 5—12—

In *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*: The Rivalry of Nations. Chap. 17.

Required Books: Grecian History. Chap. 6. Homer to Theocritus. Chap. 5.

FEBRUARY 12—19—

In *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*: The Rivalry of Nations. Chap. 18. Critical Studies in French Literature.

Victor Hugo's "Ninety-Three."

Required Book: Grecian History. Chaps. 7 and 8.

FEBRUARY 19—26—

In *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*: The Rivalry of Nations. Chap. 19. A Reading Journey in the Orient. Asia Minor.

Required Book: Grecian History. Chap. 9.

FEBRUARY 26—MARCH 5—

In *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*: The Rivalry of Nations. Chap. 20. The Inner Life of the Chevalier Bayard.

Required Book: Homer to Theocritus. Chaps. 6, and 7 to page 156.

SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLES.

Circles situated in college towns can get many interesting sidelights on recent Greek discoveries by consulting the archaeological journals which are not so generally found in an ordinary public library. The discovery of the Great Altar of Zeus at Pergamum and the excavations on the Acropolis at Athens are very interesting but have not been written up to any extent in the current magazines. Many small libraries which do not own Gardner's "New Chapters in Greek History" will be glad to buy it for the use of a circle. Diehl's "Excursions in Greece" is less expensive and a very satisfactory substitute for Gardner. Baedeker's "Greece" contains much in small compass.

JANUARY 29—FEBRUARY 5—

1. Roll-call: Answered by quotations from the *Iliad* and *Odyssey*.

2. Papers: The Indian Mutiny. (See "The Land of the Veda," Butler.) The Diamond Jubilee of Queen Victoria. (See all magazines for June and July, 1897.)

3. Singing: "The Recessional," Kipling.

4. Reading: "The Shrinking Earth." (See December *CHAUTAUQUAN*.)

5. Greek Myths: Their meaning and their use by the poets. Two papers on Orpheus; Demeter and Persephone. (See Bulfinch's "Age of Fable," and Gayley's "Classic Myths in English Literature." Also Hawthorne's "Tanglewood Tales" and "Wonder Book.")

6. Readings: Each should be given directly after the paper to which it relates. "Demeter and Persephone," Tennyson. "Orpheus and Eurydice," Browning.

7. Papers: The Old Olympic Festival. (See "New Chapters in Greek History," Gardner. "Excursions in Greece," Diehl. *Century Magazine*, April, 1896. Also the larger Greek histories. See bibliography in Joy's book.) The New Olympic Games. (See *Century Magazine*, November, 1896. *Outlook*, May 30, 1896. *Scribner's Magazine*, September, 1896.)

8. Reading: Selections from "My Sixty Days in Greece," B. L. Gildersleeve. *Atlantic Monthly*, February, 1897.

FEBRUARY 5—12—

1. Roll-call: Reports on paragraphs in Highways and Byways, the paragraphs being assigned by number at the previous meeting. Reports also on "Uncle Sam as a Business Man." Page 481 of this magazine.

2. Papers: What Bismarck did for Germany. The present emperor's foreign policy. (See articles in current magazines.)

3. Reading: The Franco-German flirtation. *Review of Reviews*, September, 1899; or, "Geography from Homer to Columbus." Page 473 of this magazine.

4. Portrait review of characters associated with the "Rivalry of Nations." (See suggestions in December *CHAUTAUQUAN*, page 310.)

5. Sidelights on Greek history: Greek slaves. A Greek funeral. A Greek wedding. Greek

Music. (See all available histories, and bibliography in Joy's book.)

6. Study of selections in Chapter V., "Homer to Theocritus."

7. Game: (Some one of the historical card games published. See note in January Round Table.)

FEBRUARY 12—19—

1. Character Study: Victor Hugo.

2. Summing up of critical study of Hugo's "Ninety-Three" by leader.

3. Roll-call: Answered by illustrative selections from "Ninety-Three," with reason for choice.

4. Summary of Chapter 18, "The Rivalry of Nations."

5. Reading: Account of Victor Hugo's Funeral. *Literary World* (Boston), June 27, 1885.

6. Map Review: The extension of Hellas.

7. Oral Reports: The influence and limitations of the Delphic oracle. (See notes, page 547. Also bibliography in Joy's history.) The court of the Areopagus. (See *CHAUTAUQUAN*, January, 1887, on Mars Hill; also Holm's and other histories.)

8. Recent discoveries in Crete. (See Round Table.)

9. Greek Valentines: (See Round Table.)

FEBRUARY 19—26—

1. Character Study: The present czar.

2. Map Review: The expansion of Russia, showing regions already occupied, and projected railway lines.

3. Roll-call: Answered by reports on places referred to in Reading Journey article.

4. Readings: Keats's "Ode on a Grecian Urn." Selections from Æschylus's "The Persians."

5. Reports by each member: Five things best worth remembering concerning the Persian wars.

6. Character Studies: Miltiades. Aristides.

7. Reading: Pheidippides. Browning.

8. The story of the search for the lost treasures of the Acropolis. (See "New Chapters in Greek History," Gardner. "Excursions in Greece," Diehl, Chapter IV. Baedeker's "Greece.")

FEBRUARY 26—MARCH 5—

1. Roll-call: A test of observation. Number of birds' nests noted by each member in his daily walk. (See Nature Study article in this number.)

2. Summary of Chapter 20 in "Rivalry of Nations."

3. Paper: The settlement of Cape Colony.

4. Character Study: Livingstone.
5. The story of Stanley's first and second expeditions.
6. Review of early Greek poets. One should be assigned to each member, who will find out all he can about the poet and describe his work and character without giving his name.
7. Reading: Selections from Byron's "Childe Harold," with the story of the poem.
8. Game of Greek quotations. Twenty-five of these

should be prepared beforehand and numbered. Each member being provided with pencil and paper, sets down twenty-five numbers, and as the leader reads the quotation, gives the name of the author. Or the circle may choose sides and taking a larger number of quotations, see which side can hold out the longer. A wreath of laurel would be an appropriate recognition of the victor.

THE TRAVEL CLUB.

Comparatively few definite references to periodicals have been given in the following programs, as the literature on Asia Minor is not very accessible to the average reader. The excavations at Pergamum are full of interest, but the results have been published chiefly in archaeological journals. If the club is in a college town these journals will be found in the college library. Wilson's and Murray's guide-books are very full, and books on ancient art will give some particulars not found elsewhere. In the larger libraries the work of Perrot and Chipiez on Phrygian art will repay consultation. See bibliography at end of article.

First Week —

1. Roll-call: Oral reports on equipment for travel, food, climate, Khans, money. (See Wilson's and Murray's handbooks.)
2. Papers: The Hittites; The Phrygians; The Lydians.
3. Reading: Selections from "A Railway Celebration in Asia Minor." *The Nation*, June 11, 1891.
4. Map Study: The physical features of Asia Minor.
5. Papers: The early religious life of Asia Minor. The art of Phrygia. The rock-cut sculptures of Phrygia.
6. Character Study: Croesus.

Second Week —

1. Roll-call: Brief oral reports on the Greek cities of Asia Minor: Miletus, Ephesus, Smyrna, Colophon, Erythrae, Cymae, Halicarnassus, etc.
2. Map Study: The Persian conquest of Asia Minor.
3. Reading: Selections from traveler's experiences (see bibliography); or from "Archæological Field Work in Asia Minor." *The Nation*, February 17, 1898.
4. Papers: Alexander's Conquest; Pergamum in History; The Story of the Great Altar.
5. Reading: Selection from "Pen and Pencil in Asia Minor," by Cochran, telling of the silk industry.

Third Week —

1. Roll-call: St. Paul in Asia Minor — oral reports on his experiences at the places visited. These should be previously assigned. (See bibliography.)
2. Papers: Tarsus; Early Christian associations in Asia Minor; Pompey in Asia Minor.
3. Map Study: Asia Minor as a Roman province.
4. Paper: Asia Minor since the fall of Rome.
5. Reading: Selections from article in *Century Magazine* for September, 1900, on the troglodytes.

Fourth Week —

1. Roll-call: Reports on industries in Asia Minor — rugs, licorice, opium, meerschaum, tobacco, gum, etc. (See Reading Journey article. Also guide-books.)
2. Map Study: Review of places mentioned in Reading Journey article.
3. Papers: Modern Smyrna; Characteristics of the present people of Asia Minor; Religions of the present population.
4. Reading: Selection from "Who are the People of Asia Minor?" *The Nation*, Nov. 11, 1897.
5. Papers: Notable architecture of Asia Minor; American missions. (See *Missionary Review*, October, 1898, also bibliography.)

REVIEW QUESTIONS ON "GRECIAN HISTORY."

CHAPTER VI.

1. At what period did Argos rule in the Peloponnesus? 2. How did Arcadia, Achæa and Elis differ in their character from Sparta? 3. What was Sparta's geographical position? 4. Describe the work of Lycurgus. 5. Describe the three classes which made up the population of Sparta. 6. Describe the training of Spartan men and women. 7. How did Sparta become a center for musical development? 8. Describe the two Messenian wars. 9. How did Sparta become supreme in the Peloponnesus?

CHAPTER VII.

1. What influences led to the wide extension of the Greek colonies? 2. How was Byzantium founded? 3. How did the oracles affect colonization? 4. How did Greece renew its acquaintance with Egypt at this time? 5. What changes came in methods of barter? 6. What in navigation? 7. What was a tyranny? 8. Describe the experience of Syracuse with tyrants. 9. That of Sicily also.

CHAPTER VIII.

1. What was the legend of the founding of Athens? 2. What was the Erechtheum? 3. What position did

the archons hold at Athens? 4. How did the early Athenian oligarchy abuse the people? 5. What branches of commerce flourished in Attica? 6. What were the Draconian laws? 7. What attempt at this time was made at a tyranny in Athens and with what result? 8. What part had Solon in the first Sacred war? 9. What was Solon's relief law? 10. How did Solon restrict the power of the archons? 11. What was the court of the Areopagus? 12. How did Pisistratus become tyrant? 13. How did Pisistratus cultivate the religion of the humbler classes? 14. What rebellion arose against the sons of Pisistratus? 15. How did Cleisthenes secure control of Athens? 16. Show how a new constitution made Athens a democracy.

CHAPTER IX.

1. What important Greek cities were situated on the coast of Asia Minor? 2. How had the kingdom of Croesus secured its wealth? 3. What great oriental monarchy arose at this time? 4. How did the Ionian cities fare under the rule of Cyrus? 5. How did Aristagoras bring about the revolt of these cities? 6. What was the result? 7. Why did Darius invade Greece? 8. What was the fate of the first Persian expedition? 9. What route was followed by the second expedition?

10. Describe the battle of Marathon. 11. Describe the two parties in Athens who struggled for supremacy in the coming contest with Persia. 12. What points were occupied by the Greeks upon the approach of Xerxes? 13. What was accomplished by the fleet at

Artemisium? 14. Describe the struggle at Thermopylae. 15. Describe the battle of Salamis. 16. Describe the overthrow of the Persians at Mycale. 17. Why is Marathon called one of the decisive battles of the world?

REVIEW QUESTIONS ON "HOMER TO THEOCRITUS."

CHAPTER V.

1. What great changes took place in Greece between the time of Homer and the end of the sixth century? 2. What is the difference between lyric, epic and dramatic poetry? 3. What did the Greeks mean by lyric poetry? 4. To what events of daily life can the beginnings of lyric poetry be traced? 5. What was the "Swallow Song" of Rhodes? 6. What was a Linus song? 7. What were the subjects of elegiac poetry? 8. What was melic poetry? 9. Quote selections from the early elegiac poets. 10. What moral ideas of the time are illustrated in Solon's prayer? 11. Who was Theognis? 12. Quote from his poems illustrating his views of life. 13. How did iambic poetry get its name? 14. How important was the influence of Archilochus of Paros? 15. How did oriental ideals influence the Greek view of woman? 16. How did melic poetry differ from elegiac and iambic? 17. What is known of the poet Alcaeus? 18. What place does Sappho hold in literature? 19. Quote from her poems. 20. Who was Anacreon?

CHAPTER VI.

1. How did the choral lyric come to have a Dorian stamp? 2. What forms did Alcman and Stesichorus

give to the choral lyric? 3. Who was Arion? 4. What circumstances surrounded Simonides? What influence did he exert? 5. What recent discovery gives special interest to Bacchylides? 6. What do we know of Pindar's life? 7. Why was he especially fitted to be the poet of the great national festivals? 8. Describe one of his famous odes. 9. Quote from Pindar. 10. How does Pindar portray the future life?

CHAPTER VII.

1. What different forms of poetry were perfected in turn by the Ionians of Asia Minor, the Æolians of Lesbos, the Dorians and the Athenians? 2. What was the origin of the word "tragedy"? 3. How did the acting naturally develop in the early tragedies? 4. To what subjects were these early tragic performances restricted? 5. How were these subjects continued in connection with the fifth-century tragedies? 6. What were the principal Dionysiac festivals in Attica? 7. How was the expense of the dramatic exhibitions defrayed? 8. Why were these occasions of intense interest to all citizens? 9. Describe the appearance of a Greek theater. 10. What do we mean by a "trilogy" or a "tetralogy"? 11. How large was the chorus?

SUPPLEMENTARY GREEK NOTES.

THE DELPHIC ORACLE.

Although the answers of the oracle were always framed so as to give full play to the sagacity of the questioner, which also ensured that the failure of an undertaking apparently sanctioned by the oracle could always be ascribed to a wrong interpretation of it, yet a wide knowledge of Greek affairs was necessary to prevent the replies from gradually falling into disrepute by their want of meaning. The Delphic priests had to be acquainted with the position of affairs in the different Greek states, and as there were always a number of people at Delphi who had come thither as envoys or in their own private interests, they were kept informed of all important matters, and moreover, had leisure to study them as the gifts brought to the temple constituted their chief source of livelihood. We need not, however, credit the priests of Delphi with extraordinary wisdom. . . . The fact that there was no perceptible opposition to the part played by Delphi proves that the priests were not men of genius. . . . Every state was on good terms with Delphi; which shows that the oracle did not take the lead, but as a rule knew how to convey a religious sanction to the very thing that was desired by the applicants. If Delphi sometimes opposed the wishes of a state, it did so only in order to maintain the authority of the oracle. . . . In very early times foreign nations were influenced by the peculiar civilization of the Greeks and the Delphic oracle was everywhere considered as the authoritative exponent of Greek religious views. We may say that whenever its influence touched the region of morals, it made itself felt in the sense of moderation and avoidance of all extremes, which we have seen to be a characteristic ornament of the Greek mind. Its supervision of the Greek religion had the effect of preventing the circle of recognized deities being invaded by the arbitrary admission of new ones. It also on fitting occa-

sions inculcated certain moral principles, i.e., as regards expiation for the crime of murder, and avoidance of revenge for bloodshed. It also exercised a moral influence upon the collective life of the Greeks by means of short sentences which were written up in the portico of the temple, among which the most famous was, "Know thyself." . . . It seems to have contributed greatly to the civilization of the Greek nation during the eighth, seventh and sixth centuries B. C.—*Holm*.

DISCOVERIES AT ATHENS.

The story of the building of the walls of the lower city by Themistocles is well known. In constant fear of Spartan interruption, men, women, and children toiled incessantly at the work, and for material not only the walls of private houses were demolished, but also inscribed stones and sepulchral monuments were broken up and used; in fact, from the wall of Themistocles we have in recent years recovered inscriptions and fragments of tombs of an early period; the slab, for instance, on which is sculptured the head of a youth holding a discus. . . . The natural rock which is the foundation of the Acropolis is not flat above, but rises in the midst somewhat like a gable roof. Let us pursue this analogy a little further. Let us suppose a house with a gable roof, of which the ridge runs parallel to the front and back walls of the house. Then it is evident that if the two walls of the house are carried up to the level of the ridge, and the two triangular spaces between ridge and walls filled up, a flat roof will be the result. This was the plan followed by the Athenian architects. They built their solid walls on the line where the abrupt rise of the rock ceased, and as the walls rose they filled the space between them and the highest ridge with layer above layer of earth and stones until they produced a surface, not indeed mathematically level, but level enough to

serve as a foundation for the noble temples and beautiful monuments with which the piety of the Athenians designed to reward the gods who had rolled back the tide of Persian invasion, and made Athens free and glorious.

It is these spaces behind the walls which have been thoroughly searched in the last five years. And as they were filled to a great degree with the ruined walls and inscriptions and statues left scattered on the site when the Persians departed, it may be easily understood that a rich harvest has been reaped of works of historical and artistic interest belonging to the age of Pisistratus and the time which followed down to B. C. 480. In the neighborhood of the Erechtheum ancient sculptures lay crowded together; at one spot fourteen statues were found, representing in various styles of art a goddess or her votaries.

Seldom has a more admirable opportunity been offered to archaeologists than this. An endless series of statues, of fragments of pediments, of bases, of inscriptions, of shards of vases, is laid before them, and they may be quite sure that all belong to a period of which the limit in time is sharply defined. A hundred questions as to the meaning, the school, the historical bearing of each monument are suggested, and beyond these questions lies the grand problem of recovering the whole artistic and mythologic surroundings of the sixth century at Athens. And the very men most fitted to use the opportunity are on the spot. Besides the members of the Greek Archaeological Society there are now concentrated in Athens, in the German, French, English, and American schools, the most promising young archaeologists of many countries.—*Gardner*.



ANSWERS TO SEARCH QUESTIONS.

"THE RIVALRY OF NATIONS."—JANUARY.

1. Princess Hélène of Montenegro married the Prince of Naples, now Victor Emmanuel III. of Italy. 2. The present ruler of Serbia is the fifth of his dynasty, which was founded by Milos Todorovic Obrenovic, leader of the Servians in the war of insurrection to throw off the yoke of Turkey, which had lasted since 1459. The war lasted from 1815–29, when the Turkish government was compelled to grant virtual independence to Serbia. By the terms of the treaty signed September 14, 1829, Milos T. Obrenovic was acknowledged Prince of Serbia, and in the following year the dignity was made hereditary in his family. 3 and 4. Vicomte Ferdinand de Lesseps. (1805–1894.) A celebrated French engineer and diplomatist. He is chiefly known as the projector and engineer of the Suez canal, work on which was commenced in 1859 and which was opened in 1869. He afterward formed a company for the purpose of cutting a canal through the Isthmus of Panama, and work on the canal was begun in 1881. The scheme collapsed and a judicial inquiry into the affairs of the company resulted in a sentence of imprisonment against De Lesseps in 1893, which was not, however, carried into effect. 5. Robert Clive, Baron Clive of Plassey. (1725–1774.) He began his career as a writer in the service of the East India Company at Madras. When war broke out in 1744 between the French and British in India, he obtained an ensign's commission. He rose rapidly in rank, and in 1756 commanded the expedition which avenged the tragedy of the Black Hole of Calcutta. During the next year he won a decisive victory at Plassey. He afterward became governor of Bengal until 1767, when he resigned because of the broken-down condition of his health. His official conduct became the subject of parliamentary inquiry subsequently, which resulted practically in his favor. 6. Various mercantile associations formed in different countries in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries for the purpose of conducting under the auspices of the government a monopoly of the trade of their respective countries with the East Indies. 7. Goso: an island in the Mediterranean belonging to Great Britain, four miles northwest of Malta. Aden: a seaport in Arabia on the Gulf of Aden. An important coaling station. Perim: a small island in the Strait of Bab-el-Mandeb, at the entrance to the Red sea. A British coaling station.

"A READING JOURNEY IN THE ORIENT."—JANUARY.

1. Topographers differ greatly as to the courses of the ancient walls of Jerusalem. See articles in biblical dictionaries (Hastings', for example); Baedeker's and Murray's handbooks of Palestine also give full descriptions of the walls with discussion of the opinions of the

various learned explorers of Jerusalem. 2. The descendants of the colonists from Babylon and Cuthah brought by Sargon to Samaria to take the place of the Israelites who had been killed and transported. Their number was afterward increased by contingents from the Assyrian provinces. (Ezra iv.:2–10.) Although priests were sent to instruct these foreigners in the "worship of Jehovah," the population had a mixed belief and practise. After the return from the captivity, the Jews declined the aid of the Samaritans in restoring the walls and the temple of Jerusalem, in consequence of which the breach between them widened. The Samaritans, under the leadership of Sanballat and his son-in-law, founded a sanctuary of their own on Mt. Gerizim. In consequence of this, the town of Nablous at the base of the mountain rose in importance and Samaria declined. The temple was destroyed by John Hyrcanus, and, after various conflicts with the Jews and Christians, they ceased to have any noteworthy separate history. 3. Mount Tabor and Mount Hermon. 4. About seventy-five miles southeast of the Dead sea; the capital of Edom. Book of Obadiah. (See E. L. Wilson's "In Scripture Lands," 1895 edition, Charles Scribner's Sons.) 5. The scene of the battle between the Hebrews and Og of Baashan at the epoch of their entrance into Canaan. (Deut. iii.:1–7.) 6. A religious sect of Syria. The only name they acknowledge is Unitarians; that by which they are known to other is probably from Ismail Darasi or Durzi, who was their first apostle in Syria. They are fanatical and warlike and have had bloody conflicts with their neighbors, the Maronites. Claim to be descendants of the Crusaders. Took the part of Kurds in the massacres of the Maronites in 1860. 7. Because the Turkish government has for several years been endeavoring to subdue the Druses, who frequently resist paying taxes, etc., the Druses suspect the motives of all foreigners, and are therefore hostile. The government, on the other hand, does not dare to defend foreigners traveling in those parts. 8. Unknown; supposed to be of Roman origin. 9. Solomon. (II. Chronicles, viii.:4.) Palmyra being the Greek form for the Syrian Tadmor. 10. About two million. 11. "There is no God but God; and Mohammed is God's apostle." The resurrection and the final judgment. Full and unconditional submission to God's decrees and the predestination of good and evil: thus not only a man's fortunes but his deeds and consequently his future reward and punishment are preordained. The last doctrine is not accepted by all Moslems but it has undoubtedly contributed largely to the success of Islam by inspiring contempt for the dangers of warfare, destiny being immutably fixed under any circumstances. Prayer, fasting, and pilgrimage. 12. Beirut, Sidon, Tyre, Acre, Haifa, Joppa.

TOPICS of the HOUR with CURRENT EVENTS PROGRAMS.

[Note.—In the daily deluge of books and articles the average reader is hopelessly overwhelmed. Complete lists of references to current magazines and recent volumes are of value only to specialists. The busy person who wishes to be reasonably conversant with the leading questions of the day has no time for wide reading, and is too likely to be discouraged by an exhaustive "bibliography." THE CHAUTAUQUAN will seek to serve its subscribers by calling attention each month to a list of representative books, and typical articles which deal with the different phases of some one topic of current interest. The Current Events Programs are prepared for the use of clubs, college and other literary societies, women's clubs and organizations desiring direction for current events courses.]

V. RACE PROBLEMS IN THE UNITED STATES.*

INTRODUCTORY.—The race question, especially with reference to the negro, constitutes the most important economic problem our country has to consider. So serious is the condition becoming that sober-minded men view the situation with alarm. While disfranchisement would possibly remove the intense race hatred existing in the south, caused largely by fear of negro domination, it would again give the whites almost complete control over the blacks. Fully as perplexing a condition is the Chinese question on the Pacific Coast, although the political phase is not prominent, as the Chinese have little desire to vote. The third phase of the race problem arises from the fact that not more certainly does the white retire from industrial competition with Chinese labor than the Indian disappears before white civilization. Our military policy has lessened contact between the two races, and the Indian question thus involves chiefly the element of just treatment at the hands of the superior race. The Chinese, negro, and Indian, unlike immigrants from European countries, are wholly alien to our civilization. They are *with* us, but not *of* us. Even when peaceable and orderly, they cheapen labor and inevitably arouse the hatred of those they supplant industrially or dominate politically. In addition to the references given below, it is assumed that the reader will consult encyclopedias, dictionaries of social science and reform, and statistical publications. Much valuable information will be found in files of the *Southern Workman*, *Overland Monthly*, "Lake Mohank Conference Reports," "Reports of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs," and "Reports of the Indian Rights Association."

Negro:

Bruce, P. A. "The Plantation Negro as a Freeman." (Putnam's, New York, 1889.) An admirable little work. Few writers have so well grasped the subject. Concludes that solution will be industrial, and in this respect a sharp competition will always exist between the whites and the blacks in the south; black supremacy will never give efficient government.

Bryce, James. "Thoughts on the Negro Question." (*North American Review*, Vol. CLIII., p. 641.) An English view, suggestive. Believes that intercourse will always be possible in business relations, but socially only when negro is a domestic servant.

Cable, G. W. "The Negro Question," and "The Silent South." (Scribner's, New York, 1890 and 1895. Chapters of these books may be found as articles in *Contemporary Review*, Vol. LIII., p. 443; *Forum*, Vol. V., p. 627, and Vol. VI., p. 392; *Century*, Vol. V., p. 582, and Vol. VII., p. 409.) Intelligent discussion of all phases of the question, especially Negro Future, Negro Government, a Simpler Southern Question, and Negro Equity.

Camp, E. M. "Our African Contingent." (*Forum*, Vol. I., p. 562.) A statement of what the negro has accomplished as a freedman.

Chandler, W. E. "Our Southern Masters." (*Forum*, Vol. V., p. 509.) Argument to refute W. Hampton (see below.)

Farnham, H. W. "Economic Aspects of the Liquor Problem." (Houghton, Mifflin & Co., New York, 1899.) Treats of the colored man, as compared with the white, in the use of liquors. Few negroes are

found among the sane paupers of the United States. Thoroughly impartial survey of conditions.

Gilliam, E. W. "The African Problem." (*North American Review*, Vol. CXXXIX., p. 417.) Even at his best, the negro in authority would bring ruin. Compulsory deportation only remedy. A good argument, although suggested solution is impossible.

Hampton, W. "What Negro Supremacy Means." (*Forum*, Vol. V., p. 383.) Holds that negro supremacy would bring total ruin to the south and infinite loss to the whole country.

Hoffman, F. L. "Race Tendencies and Traits of the American Negro." (Publications of the American Economic Association, Vol. IX., pp. 1-310.) A competent statistician dealing with the facts; one of the best presentations of all phases; treats of amalgamation of races, and similar social tendencies.

Page, Thos. N. "A Southerner on the Negro Question." (*North American Review*, Vol. CLIV., p. 401.) Reply to J. Bryce (see above.) Solution will be natural; best of the negroes will be absorbed, some will go to Africa and South America, residue will perish under conditions of life unsuited to progress.

Pike, J. S. "The Prostrate State." (Appleton, New York, 1874.) South Carolina under negro government; what actually results from negro supremacy, even when temporary. Valuable for paper or debate.

Thrasher, M. B. "Tuskegee." (Small, Maynard & Co., Boston, 1900.) A description of the purposes and methods of Booker T. Washington's industrial school. Hopeful side of question.

*"Party Government in England, France and the United States" appeared in October. "Trusts" appeared in November. "Village Improvement Associations and Kindred Topics" appeared in December. "Divorce" appeared in January.

Tourgee, A. W. "An Appeal to Cæsar." (Fords, Howard & Hulbert, New York, 1884.) Keen, interesting, vigorous argument. Native whites are emigrating from south; even the whites are comparatively illiterate; white labor, skilled and unskilled, has no opportunity in south.

Williams, G. W. "History of the Negro Race in America." (Putnam, New York, 2 vols., 1882.) Parts 8 and 9 give a colored man's view of race problem; a hopeful aspect.

Chinese:

Conwell, R. H. "Why and How." (Lee & Shepard, Boston, 1871.) Analysis of causes which bring Chinese to America. Immigration should be unrestricted, that Chinese labor may have a respectable living.

Durst, J. H. "The Exclusion of the Chinese." (*North American Review*, Vol. CXXXIX., p. 256.)

The presence of the Chinese produces social and economic changes similar to those wrought by slavery.

Farwell, W. B. "Why the Chinese Must be Excluded." (*Forum*, Vol. VI., p. 196.) Chinese labor does away with the middle class of artisans.

Gibson, O. "The Chinese in America." (Hitchcock & Walden, Cincinnati, 1877.) Good if available. Gives a clear insight of merits and demerits of Chinese immigration.

Lee, Y. P. "The Chinese Must Stay." (*North American Review*, Vol. CXLVIII., p. 476.) Discusses eleven arguments against the Chinese. Good for debate.

Reid, Gilbert. "China's View of Chinese Exclusion." (*Forum*, Vol. XV., p. 407.) Exclusion would be a violation of treaty stipulations.

Report of the Special Committee to Investigate Chinese Immigration, to the Forty-fourth Congress. (Washington, Government Printer, 1877.) A most exhaustive account.

Seward, G. F. "Chinese Immigration." (Scribner's, New York, 1881.) Economic aspect of the question; gives results of Chinese coming to America; no fear of a great influx.

Seward, G. F. "Mongolian Immigration." (*North American Review*, Vol. CXXXIV., p. 562.) Clear

outline of objections, and measures necessary to be taken.

Smith, R. M. "Emigration and Immigration." (Scribner's, New York, 1890.) Pp. 227-265 give account of anti-Chinese legislation; economic effect. Inability to amalgamate with Americans the true basis for exclusion.

Indian:

Barrows, Wm. "The Indian's Side of the Indian Question." (Lathrop & Co., Boston, 1887.) Concise presentation of the matter from the Indian's side. Gives results of experiments in Indian government. Helpful for facts and arguments.

Davis, Jefferson. "The Indian Policy of the United States." (*North American Review*, Vol. CXLIII., p. 436.) Defense of government. Good argument.

Drake, F. S. "Indian Tribes of the United States." (Lippincott, Philadelphia, 2 vols., 1891.) Best published study of character and history of Indians, and the policy of our government.

Ellis, G. E. "The Red Man and the White Man." (Little, Brown & Co., Boston, 1882.) Last three chapters give a history of the government's dealings with Indians, and their conditions under civilization.

Hamilton, Gail. "The Lion's Side of the Lion Question." (*North American Review*, Vol. CXLVI., p. 294.) Indians, being barbarians, must go down before civilization, but government should keep its pledges while the reds survive.

Harrison, J. B. "Indian Reservations." (Indian Rights Association, Philadelphia, 1887.) Excellent description of the reservations; the conditions and life; success and failure of police method of treatment.

Jackson, H. H. "A Century of Dishonor." (Harper, New York, 1881.) Government's dealings with Indian tribes.

Manypenny, G. W. "Our Indian Wards." (Clarke & Co., Cincinnati, 1880.) An intelligent and suggestive statement of conditions; duties of our government.

Walker, F. A. "The Indian Question." (Osgood & Co., Boston, 1874; also in *North American Review*, Vol. CXVI., p. 329.) Citizenship as a possible means of solution.

CURRENT EVENTS PROGRAMS.

First Week —

1. Reading: (1) Chapter on "Accounting for Strange Things" in Tourgee's "An Appeal to Cæsar" (listed above). (2) Chapter on "A Simpler Southern Question" in Cable's "Negro Question" (listed above).
2. Oration: (1) Thirty-five years of Negro Progress. (2) Negro Supremacy.
3. Paper: (1) Higher education for the negro. (2) The Tuskegee idea. (3) Religious characteristics of the negro.
4. Debate: Resolved, That the southern states are justified in enacting legislation to restrict the right of negro suffrage.

Second Week —

1. Reading: (1) Chapters from Conwell's "Why and How" (listed above). (2) From Lee's "The Chinese Must Stay" (listed above).
2. Oration: The Yellow Peril.
3. Paper: (1) Chinese domestic servants. (2) Negro deportation.
4. Debate: Resolved, That the interests of American labor do not require Chinese exclusion laws.

Third Week —

1. Reading: From Hamilton's "The Lion's Side of the Lion Question" (listed above). (2) "Traits of Indian Character" from Irving's "Sketch-book."
2. Oration: The genius of the Indian race.
3. Paper: (1) Indian treaties. (2) Indian degeneracy.
4. Debate: Resolved, That government appropriations for denominational schools for the Indian are justifiable.

Fourth Week —

1. Reading: (1) Chapters on "The Negro as an Agricultural Laborer" or "The Negro as a Renter and Land Owner" from Bruce's work (listed above). (2) From Pike's "The Prostrate State" (listed above).
2. Oration: (1) The Fifteenth Amendment. (2) The Right to Survive.
3. Paper: (1) Review of the work of the Dawes Commission. (2) The Indian reservation system. (3) Judge Lynch.
4. Debate: Resolved, That a changed industrial system is indispensable to a solution of the race problem in the south.

NEWS FROM THE CIRCLES.

Twenty-two questions printed on a four-page circular with blank spaces for answers, have been sent to all the circles. These questions are important ones,—and we are anxious to have each circle answer them. Moreover, the first page of the circular emphasizes two other ways in which the circles may render service to the C. L. S. C. If any circle has failed to receive the circular containing these questions and suggestions, please write to the editor of the Round Table at once, so that you may be supplied.

The hearty thanks of the editor are hereby extended to the circles who were able to make prompt reports, and who did so without delay. Perhaps one suggestion may be made to those who have not yet returned the blank. The questions were intended to serve merely as a kind of backbone for the report, to insure definite information upon many points. The laconic replies received from some of the circles have not given to this bony structure all the living qualities that were hoped for. But doubtless this was due to the short time allowed. If those who have still to report will make their answers as full as possible we shall be better able to do justice to the individuality of each circle.

NOVA SCOTIA.

One of the first circles to answer the twenty-two questions is the "Sesame" C. L. S. C. of Halifax, Nova Scotia. These Chautauquans are beginners, twenty of them members of 1904, more than half already enrolled at Cleveland. The remainder we hope to welcome soon. A very happy motto has been chosen by this circle—"Lest we forget," and we believe that though they may find that there is such a thing as the art of "forgetting judiciously," they will make many of the best things in literature a part of themselves.

Halifax is characterized as a "university and military city," perhaps it is because the men are engaged in camp or cloister that the circle numbers three men and seventeen women, but there are doubtless good reasons for this state of affairs, and we hope that the circle may always be a "men's and women's club." Nova Scotia is so near to us that we sometimes forget that these near neighbors do not own allegiance to "Uncle Sam," and it might be a good thing if we could look in upon some of their discussions which the secretary says are "sometimes quite spirited, as 'The Rivalry of Nations' is

written largely from an American standpoint and our members do not always agree with its sentiments where it touches on British government, etc." We congratulate these Chautauquans upon their ability to differ from the author whom they are reading, which Henry Drummond once characterized as an important element in one's education. The circle had the good fortune to hear a fine paper originally written as a thesis upon "Wordsworth and His Connection with the French Revolution." They are also making good use of their library, and altogether give evidence of great vitality.

WATCHING THE CENTURY DIE.

As mentioned in the January CHAUTAUQUAN, the Chautauqua circle of the Strawbridge Methodist Episcopal Church of Baltimore, held an "end of the century" meeting, and as this was a notable occasion and is the only report of such a gathering which has yet come to the editor, it seems fitting to give it a prominent place in the earliest succeeding issue of THE CHAUTAUQUAN. Our correspondent adds that so many readers of former years were present that the meeting became a kind of Chautauqua reunion as well as an end of the century watch meeting:

The "End of the Century" meeting of the Strawbridge C. L. S. C., Baltimore, Maryland, on the night of December 31, was in every respect the most successful which that circle has yet held. In spite of the fact that a large number of other celebrations were held on the same night, and that a magnificent public display of fireworks was given only a few squares from the church, the attendance was so great as nearly to overwhelm the circle. Seats had been provided for about one hundred, but after double that number of chairs had been brought in, a large number of persons were obliged to be content with standing room only. Many Chautauqua readers of former years were among those attending. The first number of the program, "The Nineteenth Dynasty in the Nineteenth Century," by Dr. Elbert S. Todd, ingeniously wove together the current chapter of the "Reading Journey in the Orient" with the special theme of the meeting, "The Work and the Workers of the Dying Century." This purported to be a conversation between Professor Emil Brugsch, the Egyptian explorer, and the mummy of *Rameses II.*, which he had discovered. The ancient tyrant was represented as loudly expressing his astonishment at the marvelous changes that had taken place in his own country and throughout all the world since he had been laid away in the tomb thousands of years before. While this conceit permitted a humorous treatment of the subject, the paper was also a most instructive presentation of the results of modern Egyptian exploration. Dr. Todd could write largely from a personal knowledge of the subject, as he made an extensive journey through Egypt only a few years ago. The progress of physical science during the century

was treated by Miss Clark, of Bryn Mawr College, in a most instructive talk on our present knowledge of radiant energy, and the possibilities of further advancement in this most important branch of science.

The development of the art of music during the century was traced by Mr. Robert Leroy Haslup, one of the most accomplished organists of Baltimore, and a personal friend of the great Guilman, the famous Parisian organist. At the conclusion of the program Mr. Haslup gave, in an informal organ recital, selections from the works of Guilman, illustrating the points which he had treated in his talk.

Following this a selected quartet gave an impressive rendering of Tennyson's "Crossing the Bar," arranged as an anthem by Sir Joseph Barnby.

The next number was a revelation of high thinking, even to Chautauquans. Under the title of "The Mountain Peaks of Song," Dr. Charles W. Hodell, professor of English literature in the Woman's College of Baltimore, gave a popular appreciation of that monumental work of the nineteenth century, Robert Browning's "The Ring and the Book." Dr. Hodell has published a study of "The Moral Spirit and Motive of the Ring and the Book," after giving several years of careful study to the subject at Cornell University, and making visits to the places and objects connected with the famous poem and its author. The fact that he succeeded in not only interesting but inspiring an audience, only a few of whom had ever read the poem, proves that he is not merely a specialist, but a master. His interpretation of Browning's message to his age through the words of the good old pope, was a veritable symphony. Certainly no subject in the whole range of literature could have been better fitted to the spirit of that hour.

The meeting closed with a brilliant address on "The Message of the Nineteenth Century to the Twentieth," by Mr. Samuel M. Hann, in which the general trend of our civilization was summed up in brief but striking words, followed by a stirring call to action to the young men and women who are to make or mar the record of humanity in the century that is dawning.

THE SOUTH.

Another new circle in the south, made up entirely of 1904's, is that organized within the Woman's Club of Cleveland, Tennessee. The circle proper consists of twelve members, but fully as many more are reading with them. The club has been organized for some years, but this is the first time that it has taken up Chautauqua work and it is pleasant to hear that the course is proving most helpful. The circle has the advantage of being situated in a cultivated community, and the club of which it is a part has collected a library of several hundred volumes. There must be an interesting story in connection with the library, and we hope the circle will give us an account of the activities which brought it about. Evidently the atmosphere of the circle is most friendly, as the Socratic method of question and answer with frequent discussions seems more successful than the writing of many papers.

The Chautauquans of Eupora, Mississippi, are members of the Class of 1901. They have been fortunate in securing a leader who

has the power of inspiring the members of the circle to do their best. The membership includes seven at present, but since we know that the significance of this number is perfection, we feel that the quality of the circle is assured.

The Minerva Circle of Liberty Grove, Maryland, calls attention to an error in the January CHAUTAUQUAN by which it is located at Rising Sun. We all know the hopeless feeling of lost individuality which one feels when taken for some one else, and we are glad to give the Minerva Circle its proper setting.

BEYOND THE MISSISSIPPI.

The Pasadena, California, Circle took only a brief holiday vacation and began the new year with commendable promptness by holding a meeting on New Year's eve. A report of this meeting would doubtless be well worth reading. At Santa Clara the characteristic method of reviewing the work seems to be by means of papers. This indicates considerable literary enthusiasm on the part of the members, and as some half-dozen papers are presented at each meeting, each reader must get a good deal of training in the course of a year. The town of Orange has a population of twelve hundred, no saloons and six churches. Surely a C. L. S. C. can flourish in such an atmosphere, and the present circle newly organized is doubtless on time with all its reports, judging from the promptness with which the recent communication from the Round Table editor was filled out and returned.

The program of the Rico, Colorado, Circle is a very creditable piece of work. It is prepared by some duplicating process and shows careful attention to artistic effect. The three mottoes of the C. L. S. C. are given on the fourth cover page. Each item of the program is timed and every member knows his limit, the whole being planned to cover about an hour and three-quarters.

Albion, Nebraska, has a fine new circle of twenty, sixteen of whom are enrolled members of the Class of 1904. The town is small but with a high standard intellectually, and the circle bids fair to become a power. Some of the members of the circle were active in helping to establish a public library two years ago, and the librarian is a valued member of the organization. The leader writes that one of their number was born in France, and three have visited the Paris Exposition, also traveling extensively in France and Germany, so that many interesting personal experiences have been con-

A Woman's Page

THE HOUSE and THE HOME

Of Interest to Music Lovers.

The Oliver Ditson Company, of Boston, Mass., publish a very interesting and valuable little booklet with the portraits of over sixty distinguished American composers of instrumental and vocal music, including also reproduction, in part, of many of their most successful and popular songs and musical compositions. Any Chautauquan reader can obtain this interesting booklet, free of charge, if care is taken to state that this announcement was seen in THE CHAUTAUQUAN Magazine, and inclose four cents in stamps to cover postage. The Oliver Ditson Company is one of the largest and most reliable music publishing houses in America and furnishes much of the music that is used during the musical season every summer at the famous Chautauqua Assembly.

Photography as a Pastime.

To people of intellectual tastes and habits, to people who seek recreation and entertainment of an elevating character, there are few things that appeal so delightfully and so profitably as the camera. A beautifully illustrated catalogue giving much valuable information about cameras and photography will be sent free by addressing the Rochester Optical Company, 233 South street, Rochester, New York.

Home Entertainments.

To persons who are seeking information for interesting and intellectual entertainment, write to the Gramophone Company, 874 Broadway, New York, and state you saw this in THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

The Zon-o-phone is a unique and wonderfully interesting musical instrument for home entertainment. We would be glad to send you some interesting circulars about it. The National Gramophone Company, 874 Broadway, New York City.

Art Photograph Catalogue.

The Soule Photograph Company, 844 Washington street, Boston, Mass., publish an interesting and valuable catalogue of twenty thousand subjects, including reproductions of works of the old and modern masters, in painting, sculpture, and architecture, and views from all parts of the world; also lantern slides for the stereopticon, and photographic enlargements for the decoration of schools. This catalogue of twenty thousand art subjects can be obtained by any Chautauqua reader for 15 cents.

Clothing the Children.

An interesting catalogue with over one thousand illustrations showing the latest styles for infants and children and how to dress them, is sent on request if you state you saw this announcement in THE CHAUTAUQUAN Magazine. Four cents should be enclosed to pay postage. Address Best & Company, Dept. H, West Twenty-third street, New York.

Plants and Flowers—Prize Offers for their Successful Cultivation, etc.

W. A. Burpee & Co., of Philadelphia, have just issued one of the largest and most complete seed catalogues ever published—a new book of 220 pages, with many handsome colored plates of the most recent novelties in plants, vegetables, and flowers, with directions for the culture of almost everything in plant life, and cash prizes offered for successful effort in cultivating them. Any Chautauqua reader can obtain this book by simply stating that the announcement was seen in THE CHAUTAUQUAN Magazine, and enclosing ten cents to cover postage, etc.

Dainty Desserts.

CHAUTAUQUAN readers are a refined, intellectual class. We want to interest CHAUTAUQUAN housewives in our interesting little booklet, "Dainty Desserts for Dainty People." We will send this little booklet for a two-cent stamp to pay postage, or we will send a pint of Knox's Acidulated Gelatine with the booklet for five cents. This is a special offer to CHAUTAUQUAN readers, and it is therefore necessary that you state in your letter that you saw this advertisement in THE CHAUTAUQUAN Magazine. You will find this a valuable little booklet in your home. Address C. B. Knox, 60 Knox avenue, Johnstown, New York.

Art Studies.

The *Art Interchange*, the oldest, largest, and best of the art magazines, and an invaluable guide in all branches of home decorating. For a short time, any Chautauqua reader can obtain a copy of this valuable art magazine, including two design supplements and two beautiful color plates, for 25 cents. The two color pictures alone sell for \$1.00. To secure them in this special offer it is necessary that you state you saw this announcement in THE CHAUTAUQUAN. See also large illustrated advertisement in the December issue, page xxi. Illustrated catalogue of over two hundred subjects free. Address the *Art Interchange*, 9 West Eighteenth street, New York City.

Prize Contest for Boys and Girls.

We want young people to learn why Pillsbury's Best Flour is the best flour and how it makes the best bread. Three Hundred Dollars in cash prizes will be distributed among boys and girls who write the best articles on flour and bread. Mail us your name and address at once and we will send you printed matter about Wheat, Flour and Bread, that will supply you with facts for an essay. Pillsbury-Washburn Flour Mills Company, Ltd., Minneapolis, Minn. Parents and teachers are invited to urge children to try for these prizes, as in doing so they will be employed, will acquire useful information, and may earn some money. State you saw this in THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

tributed to the circle programs. Milton Memorial Day was made the occasion for a special program in addition to the regular lesson. A sketch of Milton's life, a review of "Paradise Lost" and a beautiful solo, "Eve's Lament," added to the attractiveness of the usual program, and the exercises were enjoyed by a large number of visitors. The circle usually has a half-dozen or more visitors, so it is letting its light shine.

The new plan of a stereopticon lecture upon Chautauqua work for the use of circles is being tried very successfully in many localities. The following report of the first union meeting of the eight Wichita circles shows how the plan was carried out:

"The Chautauqua Social Union had its first meeting of the season in Sedgwick Music Hall Saturday night, December 1. Two hundred Chautauquans and their friends were present. Mrs. R. M. Platt presided. The program opened with an illustrated lecture read by James A. Lawrence, of the East Side Circle. The lecture and lantern slides are prepared and sent out by the Chautauqua central office, at Cleveland, Ohio, and are very fine.

"The first part was devoted to scenes at Chautauqua lake, and gave one a clear conception of that great summer school. Following these pictures were a number illustrating the Chautauqua course of study for this year. The course treats of French and Greek history and customs, and the pictures of the interesting cities and buildings of these countries. Another study this year is 'The Rivalry of Nations,' and this was illustrated by pictures of the nations and colonies, many of them being devoted to the Transvaal. A portrait of Paul Kruger was loudly cheered. The lecture closed with a picture of the Golden Gate through which all graduates must pass, and a picture of the founder of Chautauqua, Bishop John Heyl Vincent, which brought forth enthusiastic applause."

The lecture was under the charge of Dr. S. S. Noble, and at the close a very effective musical program was rendered, followed by a social hour when light refreshments were served and the members of the different circles met informally and had an opportunity to compare notes upon their respective plans of study. In November the East Side Circle of Wichita entertained the Assembly Circle. The programs were decorated with photographs of a group who had part in the Assembly Circle's colonial party last year. The Assembly Circle answered to roll-call by quotations which formed an acrostic. The East Side Circle made their responses in French. The program combined exercises both grave and gay and quite intelligible to all, but it required a classical education to be able to read the program, which resorted to various French-Greek devices!

At Leavenworth, Kansas, the circle has special rooms of its own in the Manufacturers' National Bank Building, and at a

recent meeting Principal Evans of the high school gave an admirable paper on China. We shall be glad to hear further reports of the exercises of this circle.

THE CENTRAL STATES.

The Benton Harbor, Michigan, Alumni celebrated their seventh anniversary on the 14th of December. The present membership of this graduate circle is twenty-two and the classes represented range from 1882 to 1900. The social bond which unites the circle is very strong and the occasional newspaper reports which permit the outside world to know something of their doings show an unusually alert body of literary workers. According to these reports the anniversary exercises were to consist of a dinner followed by short speeches limited to five minutes, and so excellent has been the training of these Chautauquans that it is evident that they can make a good many points in the time allotted. The usual exercises of the circle are of a most studious character and give opportunities for the display of much talent. In studying Paris last year the members made extensive use of the most important of Baedeker's maps of the city and of France. Sometimes the members draw their own maps or they borrow from the public school. Some papers are prepared, but reports are chiefly oral and this method of work has proved very satisfactory.

The Okaw Circle of Windsor, Illinois, adopted the plan of assigning each member a certain part of the work to be conducted in the manner which she as leader found most instructive and interesting. The critic is an important personage in this circle and seems to have done especially effective work in matters relating to pronunciation. Cropsey in the same state is a little village of less than two hundred inhabitants but seven per cent of these belong to the Chautauqua Circle, and though they have no public library, the few available encyclopedias and books in private libraries are made to do good service. The circle has grown steadily in membership and by another year it is probable that fully ten per cent of the inhabitants of the town will be Chautauquans. At Joliet the Cosmos Chautauqua Club is doing splendid work. It meets in the parlors of the Central Presbyterian Church, and hard study is evidently the order of the day.

A very enthusiastic report comes from the Winona Chautauqua Circle situated at

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Springs are open for guests from June 15th to October 1st.

They are reached from all directions over the Danville Division of the Southern Railway.

Warsaw, Indiana, the home of the Winona Assembly. They write:

"The members were a little dubious about the wisdom of the alliance made with Chautauqua at the beginning; but they are now all ready to admit that it was a wise measure. Nothing but words of commendation are heard for the work. The Warsaw Circle has twenty-three members enrolled. The leaders are selected from time to time from the members and the suggested outlines are followed pretty closely."

Twenty-four members, eight of whom are 1904's, constitute the Winona Circle at Logansport. A program committee is in general charge of the work, and discussions play an important part in the meetings. At Flora the circle numbers eight men and eleven women and this ensures the discussion of important subjects from various points of view. The town has no public library but that of the public school is utilized, and in time we may expect to hear that the circle has molded public opinion until a town library is assured. The Winona Circle of Columbus has one leader for the whole year, Professor Wertz of the high school. Five men and five women make up the membership and the circle is thoroughly wide-awake. They have been organized only two years, but have been largely instrumental in securing the present public library. At Mishawaka the circle is eleven years old and is this year taking "A Reading Journey Through England," using Miss Hale's delightful pamphlet, which forms one of the C. L. S. C. special courses. The December meeting included the report of studies in the cathedrals of York, Durham and Lincoln.

The Alumni Association of Toledo, Ohio, and vicinity is a flourishing society and holds meetings of a combined social and literary character. The latest program, that for November 26, gave special prominence to the situation in China. The closing number, a Chautauqua quiz, is not fully explained by the announcement, but as members were to make it a written exercise, it was presumably a test of their literary attainments.

From East Liverpool the secretary writes:

"Our work here is progressing nicely, the interest is very great and the attendance is good. We are following the Suggestive Programs somewhat and find the character sketches one of the best things for fixing the important events in the French Revolution. Our president is enthusiastic, and our meetings are characterized by individuality. We would like to use the lantern slide lecture but as yet cannot see our way clear. We intend to bring all the views which we can find on Grecian history to the meeting and in that way we can derive a great deal of benefit. The idea of not having readings during the holiday week suits our circle well, as we are all very busy people and must almost neglect some of our regular work to get the reading done."

Troy, Ohio, is a city of circles and clubs, the Troy Altrurian Club being an outgrowth of the first Chautauqua Circle. Besides this club there are three active Chautauqua circles. The Home Circle is a somewhat unique organization, being composed of ten married women whose husbands are regarded as honorary members. Each meeting is held at the home of a different member upon whom devolves the responsibility of furnishing the program for that day and serving as presiding officer. The circle draws extensively upon the resources of the library and public school for books and maps. Debates and discussions are the favorite methods adopted for review, and many ingenious forms of literary entertainment have been devised. One member who has moved away still retains her relation to the circle, and some member is appointed at each meeting to send her a report of the exercises. The Home Circle is now two years old and the tie uniting these Chautauquans grows stronger every year.

THE MIDDLE STATES.

The new circle at Knox, Pennsylvania, has its work as well in hand apparently as if it had been studying for years. Efficient leaders have been appointed for each book, and the methods of review vary with every subject. The leaders are appointed by the president two weeks in advance, so that arrangements can be carefully planned. Roll-call is used to give variety to the programs, and debates are held frequently. These are reported as excellent, debated first by two people on each side and then thrown open for general discussion. The circle's resources are the school library and those of the various ministers, who have been very ready to coöperate with the members. At Honesdale a woman's club is taking up the "Reading Journey Through England." The leader writes: "Again let me tell you how much we are enjoying our delightful journey."

The new circle in the West End Presbyterian Church in Manhattan, New York City, includes twelve enrolled members, all 1904's except one. The members of the circle are full of ingenious plans for giving variety to the exercises and have adopted as one excellent feature that of bringing replies to the questions upon the memoranda, and discussing them in class. Every member of this circle ought to win five white seals at graduation without difficulty. A stirring debate was held on the question, "Resolved, That it was better for the



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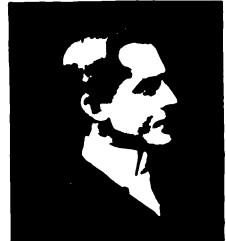
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present republic of France that Napoleon was banished to St. Helena." Able papers on both sides finally left the victory with the affirmative.

The Optimist Circle of Ithaca has a name which promises to buoy it up throughout its career. It is already three years old and has the prospect of a long life. This circle makes considerable use of guessing contests which sharpen the wits of its members and develop their individual powers. Sometimes a subject is assigned and each writes a paper upon it. Another plan is to have a book or article read aloud while the members take notes. These notes are then compared and a vote taken as to which paper is the best.

A very full and complete report is sent by the secretary of the "Current Topic Chautauquans" of Elmira, and we are glad to get such a vivid picture of the doings of this circle as the report presents. These Chautauquans have an original way of securing leaders. At the beginning of the year each member draws a date and becomes responsible for the program on that date. As the membership is large, this leaves only a few dates unprovided for, and these extra meetings have been made somewhat social in their character and held in the afternoon. Among the subjects used for roll-call were items of interest concerning the different countries. Each member was assigned a country and it became her duty to watch developments in her part of the world and make occasional report to the circle. The talents of the circle were shown conspicuously in the map review of France given at the opening of the year when one of the members presented an original map of her own manufacture and conducted a clear and concise review of the ancient provinces. This worked so well that a similar plan will be used for Greece. In connection with this latter study the circle has secured a selected library of one hundred volumes from the New York state library.

The Winter Chautauqua held for several years at Binghamton, is to be repeated this year and will open on the 11th of February, continuing until the 15th. At Newburgh the circle omitted its meetings during January owing to special religious services. It resumes its work February 6 with the first of a series of lectures upon classical Greek literature and an address upon national politics since the Franco-Prussian war.

The Bryant Circle of Sea Cliff held a stirring debate in December on "Resolved, That a monarchy is better than a republic for

a people not trained in self-government." Three speakers were assigned for each side, and much time and energy were spent in working up the arguments. The preliminary announcement of the meeting stated that the negatives were convinced that they had the right of the question, but the final report of the judges decided that the affirmative presented the better case. The intellectual strain was relieved during the evening by adjournment to another room where a Christmas tree awaited the guests and Santa Claus, whose acquaintance with the history of the circle seemed miraculous, presented each member with an appropriate gift.

The Round Table editor had the good fortune to be present at the mid-winter meeting of the Brooklyn Alumni, held on the evening of January 3 at the residence of Mrs. J. S. Junior. The Alumni has a splendid record both for hard work and for good fellowship, and the enthusiastic company of sixty or more Chautauquans who took part in the exercises bore witness to the vitality of the circle. The leader, Mrs. Case, has guided the deliberations of the circle for many years with wisdom and tact, and the machinery necessary in so large an organization moved so perfectly that there was an air of spontaneity about the whole meeting. The chief literary exercises included brief papers upon great French artists, and these were illustrated with many reproductions of famous pictures. Delightful musical selections were interspersed, and a cordial and kindly greeting was given to the visiting guest, who was then given the pleasant opportunity of shaking hands with every member. One of the novel features of the evening was the roll-call answered by twentieth-century resolutions. The circle uses the credit system, and each member was obliged to report the time of arrival. In the case of some, the twentieth-century resolution suggested a reform in the matter of promptness. One Chautauquan highly resolved never again to attempt to convince any one when the twentieth century would begin, and another to whom had come the

"Years that bring the philosophic mind"

had decided to make no more resolutions. The responses generally showed a courageous mental and spiritual attitude, and Chautauquans may feel assured that the welfare of Brooklyn graduates is being carefully cherished by the Alumni.

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NEW ENGLAND.

The Hurlbut Circle of East Boston, one of the oldest circles in New England, has had an exceptionally long and interesting career. Two of its members, Mr. and Mrs. Hawes, took a "Golden Wedding Journey" in the summer of 1899, and those who were present at Chautauqua on Rallying Day that year will remember the very happy impression made by these two veteran Chautauquans. The report of the Hurlbut Circle says:

"We have a large circle this winter, numbering about thirty and averaging certainly twenty-five. Mr. and Mrs. Hawes, who live several miles from here, come to us constantly and are now giving us a series of talks upon sights and scenes in Europe, where they spent some time last summer. These talks are of intense interest, illustrated by pictures and souvenirs and given in such a familiar way that we feel we are almost there. We study 'The French Revolution' and answer twenty questions on each chapter, read in turn from 'A Reading Journey in the Orient,' and recite some poems. Our recreation is the committee's choice,—always bright, instructive and entertaining."

This circle opens all its meetings with a Chautauqua song. Its committee on recreation is a good feature. There is a decided advantage in putting this part of the program into the hands of a committee distinct from that which handles the general program.

The Chautauquans of Rowley are continuing their interest in bird study, and at a recent meeting held at the home of Mr. C. A. Houghton listened to an admirable address upon the hawks and owls of New England. Mr. Houghton illustrated his talk with many mounted specimens. He is skilled in the art of taxidermy, and his own personal experiences with the feathered kingdom formed an especially interesting feature of the address. The recitation of poems upon birds reminded those present of the important contributions made to nature study by English and American poets.

How to write book reviews is being practically tested by the Atlantic, Massachusetts, branch of the "Keep Pace" Circle. Each month some one work of recognized literary merit is read by the circle and every member prepares a review of it. We shall give in a later Round Table some further suggestions upon this subject. It is an exercise that can be made exceedingly interesting and helpful.

At Island Falls, Maine, fourteen members of the Class of 1904 have plunged into their studies with all the enthusiasm of youth. Our correspondent reports weekly meetings, and as the president, Mr. Milliken, is a trustee of the Ocean Park Assembly, the circle

has an important share in promoting Chautauqua interests in the state. President Chase of Bates College recently gave a lecture at Island Falls under the auspices of the circle.

From Bradford, Vermont, comes the report, "We are thinking of forming an S. H. G. in the course of the winter, as most of our circle are graduates and are taking THE CHAUTAUQUAN. We have two new subscribers in our circle this year."

The Hawthorne Circle of Wapping reports a very successful season. This circle is eight years old and has graduated thirteen of its members. The circle has done some fine work in relation to the public library, a full account of which we hope to have for publication. The Joel Barlow Circle of Redding, true to its Yankee traditions, helps to perpetuate the memory of the famous author of "Hasty Pudding." The community is a small one, and the present circle is limited to five, yet the quality of the circle surely makes amends for the small numbers, for we learn that "One of our members walked to the place of meeting and back a few weeks ago, a distance of two and a half miles each way." The secretary adds:

"When we hold a meeting at either extremity of our district, the member at the opposite end has even farther to travel. Of course, we do not often walk, but even with a horse it is quite a journey. Nevertheless we have held eight meetings since October 1, and are nearly up with our readings. Our last year's record was eighteen meetings held between January, when we began, and July. On September 4, as a fitting close of the year's work, we held a Chautauqua picnic to which we invited all former members of the Joel Barlow Circle. Eighteen were present."

We are glad to have a full report of the Addison Moore Circle of New Haven, which has a membership of twelve, including four graduates. The circle is under the efficient leadership of Miss Briggs who has several times represented the circle as its delegate at Chautauqua. The secretary gives the following interesting outline of the plan of work:

"We are making a thorough study of 'The French Revolution,' having a review of the whole lesson from it at each meeting by the different members. One of our members is a thorough musician, and at each meeting we have a little talk on music, illustrated by piano playing, all of which is very instructive. These with roll-call, a specially assigned paper pertinent to our lesson, with sometimes a discussion or debate, make up a very interesting and instructive program. We are using the Canadian plan of points, with what we think a little improvement of our own, which is, that instead of choosing sides, the half of the circle losing the most points stands treat for the other half. It seems to us a fairer way, for if one is obliged to stay away, one need not hold any of the others back, but is responsible for one's self only. We meet once a month and all look forward eagerly to the evening for our meeting."

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The Macmillan Company has put out a revised edition of the *Iliad* of Homer, done into English prose by Andrew Lang, Walter Leaf, and Ernest Myers. The book, which contains very brief notes, is an exceedingly serviceable edition. The same company has put out, in the same form, a revised edition of the *Odyssey* of Homer, done into English prose by S. H. Butcher and Andrew Lang. J. M. S.

[The *Iliad* of Homer and The *Odyssey* of Homer. New York: The Macmillan Co.]

In the series of Temple Classics, edited by Israel Gollancz, the Macmillan Company has put out a very useful edition of Defoe's "Journal of the Plague Year." The book is printed on thin paper, and, though containing 318 pages, is small enough to slip easily into one's pocket. Very brief notes are included in the volume. Dante's "Paradiso" is presented in the same form. The Italian and the English translation run along side by side. J. M. S.

[A Journal of the Plague Year. By Daniel Defoe. 50 cents. Dante's Paradiso. 50 cents. New York: The Macmillan Co.]

Macmillan's Pocket English Classics is a series of texts edited for use in secondary schools, each volume of which is supplied with more or less copious notes. In the series are some of the works of Shakespeare, Scott, Tennyson, Addison, Byron and others. J. M. S.
[Macmillan's Pocket English Classics. 25 cents each. New York: The Macmillan Co.]

The "Century Classics," a new series of the world's best books, gotten up attractively and at a reasonable price, embraces, among others, a very satisfactory edition of Francis Bacon's Essays, with an introduction by Prof. George Edward Woodberry. This set of books, now numbering six, will be increased from time to time. J. M. S.

[Essays. By Francis Bacon. \$1.00. New York: The Century Co.]

The five charming little books already issued in the edition known as the "Riverside Aldine Classics" give abundant reason for pleasurable anticipation concerning the numbers to appear later in the series. These volumes are printed and bound in a style to revive and carry forward the memories of the Chiswick Press and the ideals of the great Venetian master, Aldus Manutius. Each has a beautiful frontispiece and is furnished with an introduction and notes by Mr. H. E. Scudder. Each of the volumes now ready contains a masterpiece and other characteristic selections from one of the great Americans, Longfellow, Whittier, Holmes, Lowell, Hawthorne. A. E. H.

[Riverside Aldine Classics. Evangeline. H. W. Longfellow. Snow-Bound and Other Personal Poems. J. G. Whittier. The One-Hoss Shay and Other Poems. O. W. Holmes. The Vision of Sir Launfal and the Great Odes. J. R. Lowell. Legends of the Province House and Other Twice-Told Tales. N. Hawthorne. 50 cents each. Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.]

The classic legend of Orpheus refusing to be comforted for the vanishing of Eurydice from earth, and striving in lonely sorrow to bring her back to the vacant home will appeal in every age to the sympathetic fancy of the poet who sees in it a figure of sorrow under bereavement, old as the race, new as the individual

experience. Mrs. Fields has put this symbol story into the form of a masque whose musical lines repeat the old refrain of unavailing longing and heartbreak. A Christian touch is added to the pagan legend by the soft reproachings of Eurydice to Orpheus in the dim underworld that he did not, after her departure, use his gifts of song to soothe human woe. The slender volume is attractively bound in pale gray and white and shows a golden lyre upon the cover. A. E. H.

[Orpheus. A Masque. By Mrs. Fields. \$1.00. Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.]

The sixth volume in Little, Brown & Co.'s new edition of Edward Everett Hale's Works, entitled "How to do it: How to Live," contains thirty-one chapters full of interest and literary charm. In these papers we are told, among other things, how to talk, how to write, how to read, how to travel, how to go into society, how to sleep, think, study, dress, and so on. The seventh volume in this set is called "A New England Boyhood, and other Bits of Autobiography," and is especially interesting to those who desire a more perfect acquaintance with Dr. Hale. This volume contains also, among other writings, that delightful essay on "Harvard Revisited," which was published in *The Atlantic Monthly* a few years ago. J. M. S.

[How to do it: How to Live. A New England Boyhood. Vols. VI. and VII. in Edward Everett Hale's Works. \$1.50 each. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.]

Normal book-lovers like to know something about the surroundings of their favorite authors. Dr. Theodore F. Wolfe ministers to this natural and wholesome curiosity in his "Literary Rambles at Home and Abroad." That which is disclosed is dignified and usually entertaining, though not always especially important. In the "Rambles at Home" Dr. Wolfe takes us along the Hudson to the houses of Poe, Irving, John Kendrick Bangs, and many more. Then we are shown the literary landmarks of Newark, and the place where Stockton wrote his stories. The haunts of Walt Whitman are described, and we are taken on a literary pilgrimage by the Delaware. In the "Rambles Abroad" we go with Dr. Wolfe to Stratford, Kensal Green, the grave of Childe Harold, and the Ayrshire Burneland, and the English Lakeland. J. M. S.

[Literary Rambles at Home and Abroad. By Theodore F. Wolfe, M. D., Ph. D. \$1.25. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.]

Life, even in the hurrying, crowded twentieth century, will continue to have its cheerful moments so long as Mr. Howells will at frequent gracious intervals write a little comedy that will read to laughter just as well in solitude as it will act to that accompaniment in private theatricals. The dramatic situation in "The Smoking Car"—cruelly indicated as a farce in its sub-title—is furnished by a baby whose young and trustful mother begs permission to leave it for a short time in charge of Mr. Edward Roberts in the smoking-car of a suburban train in the Albany depot at Boston. Of course the young mother vanishes quite out of sight, hearing, and finding, and equally of course our friends, Mr. and Mrs. Willis Campbell intervene. Mr. Howells has kindly furnished in detail the complications that ensue. The gift over which in "The Indian Giver" Mrs. Lillian Inglehart, hostess, and Miss Roberta Lawrence, guest, have something of a time in giving away, receiving, and taking back, is merely a cousin, Mr. James Langton Fairford, who is placed under great obligations to his present aunt and future mother-in-law. A. E. H.

[The Smoking-Car. A Farce. The Indian Giver. A Comedy. By W. D. Howells. Each 50 cents. Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.]



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THE CHAUTAUQUA ASSEMBLY:

BUREAU OF PUBLICATION: WILLIAM S. BAILEY, Director.
CLEVELAND, OHIO.

Entered according to Act of Congress, March, 1901, by THE CHAUTAUQUA ASSEMBLY, in the office of the Librarian of Congress, Washington, D. C.

Yearly Subscription, \$2.00. Single Copies, 20c.

Entered at Cleveland Post-Office as Second-class Mail Matter.



THE CHAUTAUQUAN,

A Monthly Magazine for Self-Education.

VOL. XXXII.

MARCH, 1901.

No. 6.

Highway & Byway.



It is difficult to realize that the "Victorian era" is closed. The death of Queen Victoria came suddenly—to the outside world at least, and there is reason to believe that it had been hastened by the troubles and humiliations sustained by England in the last eighteen months. The queen outlived most of those great thinkers and workers who made her reign glorious and memorable. She outlived most of those who will be associated in history with the distinctive achievements of the nineteenth century. The Victorian reign was a brilliant one in every respect. During the decades 1830–1870, indeed, the British empire reached the acme of her greatness, prosperity, and might. Prior to 1832 England was monarchical and aristocratic in the worst sense of these terms. Parliament was an oligarchy, representing class, hereditary privilege, and wealth. The first electoral reform bill excepted, Victoria urged and approved every measure which has marked the transformation of England into a "crowned republic."

Today the monarchy is but a symbol, a form, a link with the past. The people rule in the United Kingdom, and the ministry has become the executive committee of parliament, or rather of the House of Commons, for the upper house has been stripped of its powers and reduced to the status of an advisory body which may delay and temporarily check, but which cannot defeat, legislation deliberately enacted by the popular branch, the only truly governing branch. The king reigns, and, in international affairs, has considerable influence and guiding authority, but he cannot override the will of the majority, expressed by the party in control of the commons.

The last attempt to govern with a minority ministry was made under William IV., and it failed so signally that the Tory prime minister, Peel, formulated in the most unequivocal terms the principle of parlia-

mentary supremacy which has prevailed ever since. That declaration is important in any discussion of the probable policy of the new ruler, King Edward VII. It is as follows: "According to the practise, the principle, and the letter of the constitution, a government should not persist in directing the national affairs after a loyal attempt, contrary to the decided opinion of the House of Commons, even when it possesses the confidence of the king and a majority in the House of Lords. The king has the constitutional right to dissolve parliament and order new elections, but the party returned by the majority of the voters determines the policy of the government." Edward VII. has not exercised his prerogative and has retained the Salisbury ministry in office.

No political changes will follow the accession of Edward VII. to the English throne. The democratic and "social" tendencies now dominant will not be antagonized, and in this vital sense the Victorian era can hardly be considered as ended. Yet many feel that England is entering upon a period—if not of "storm and stress," then of difficulty, uncertainty, and struggle. Her foreign trade has been declining; the South African war has strained her military and financial resources; in China her prestige has suffered considerably, and her relations with France and Russia have caused no little anxiety to her statesmen. The burden of empire is becoming heavier every day, and the people are beginning to count the cost of territorial expansion and "glory." In Canada and South Africa pessimistic utterances have been heard, for in the nature of things the intense devotion to Victoria which constituted the strongest tie of empire cannot in a moment be transferred to the new and untried sovereign. But difficulty overcome is the measure of capacity and of success, and within the bounds of justice and international amity there is plenty of room for further progress on the part of the

United Kingdom. Consolidation, unification, and amelioration should henceforth be the watchwords of British statesmanship. Fortunately the differences between the two great parties are not very radical, and, whichever directs the nation, continuity of policy is certain, while internal conflicts between king and parliament or king and people are matters of the past.



EDWARD VII.,
King of Great Britain and
Ireland, and Emperor
of India.

known, and Green says that with his reign modern England begins. During his energetic administration much important legislation concerning authority of courts and the tenure of land was established, and the first complete parliament was held. He added Wales to his inherited dominions, and brought from Scotland to London the Stone of Scone, now enclosed in the coronation chair which will probably be used by the seventh Edward. His first wife, Eleanor of Castile, according to Spanish chronicles, saved her husband's life at the risk of her own when he was wounded in the Holy Land with a poisoned dagger. Queen Eleanor died in Lincolnshire in 1290, and by the king's request crosses were erected on the places where her body was set down in the transit to London. The last one was at the present geographical center of the great city, Charing Cross, which name still reminds one of the *Chère Reine*.

Edward II., the first Prince of Wales, was "a shiftless, thriftless craven," and proved himself so unworthy a successor to his great father that he exhausted the patience of his people, and was deposed by his own parliament after an inglorious reign of twenty years. It was in his time that the battle of Bannockburn was fought, in which the Scotch under Robert Bruce regained independence.

Edward III. (1327-1377), who at nineteen

was considered capable to assume charge of the policy of the nation, showed in his youth the qualities that attract popularity. Handsome, energetic, fluent in speech, courteous in manner, he nevertheless proved to be a royal knight-errant rather than a statesman and warrior. His long reign saw the beginning of the disastrous Hundred Years' war with France, to an opening campaign in which belongs the story how good Queen Philippa persuaded him from vengeance to mercy; it heard the revolutionary preaching of Wyclif and the first glad notes of Chaucer's song, but the man who had been king fifty years died unhonored, unmourned.

Edward IV. (1461-1483), first king of the White Rose or Yorkist line, is a romantic figure in serious history. His personal beauty, bravery in battle, and affability to all classes were counterbalanced by a strong-willed selfishness that knew not how to make concessions. In times of peril alert and valorous, in times of peace he was slothful and self-indulgent. At one time he was the grateful friend, at another time the bitter enemy of the great Earl of Warwick, the king-maker of the day. To the consternation of his council he made a secret marriage with the widow of a Lancastrian knight. His long, fierce conflict with the warrior-hearted "queen of tears," Margaret of Anjou, furnishes material enough for many a historical novel as stirring as Bulwer's "Last of the Barons." A mightier than he made peaceful invasion of England during his reign in the printing-press set up by Caxton in the precincts of Westminster Abbey.

Edward V. abides immortally young in the world's pity, the pathetic figure of a little lad, heir to a crown which he never wore, done to death by an unscrupulous uncle. He was twelve years old when his father died in the April of 1483. He with his brother, Duke of York, disappeared from men's knowledge in June. Masons repairing the Tower in 1674 came upon the bones of two young boys hidden under a staircase, the grave of "The Little Princes in the Tower."



ALEXANDRA,
Queen of Great Britain and
Ireland, and Empress
of India.

Edward VI. (1547-1553), the Tudor boy-king, was a bright and promising but delicate lad of ten years at the death of his father, Henry VIII. His death at sixteen forbids knowledge of what might have been accomplished by him in manhood if the strength of will he seems to have inherited had been regulated by enlightened judgment and sincere piety. The Book of Common Prayer dates from his reign, and the establishment of many grammar schools in accordance with his wishes is a lasting memorial to his name.

The fields for a king's activity were formerly war and statecraft. Today there are nobler ways and means by which an Edward VII. may serve a people's welfare.



In connection with the funeral of the queen, a few incidents significant in one way or another should not pass without comment. In Dublin both the cathedrals were crowded on the occasion of the special services commemorative of her majesty's death. An observer in St. Patrick's noted that "when the change in the state prayers brought home to the people that something had really gone forever from their familiar daily life, there were many unaffected tears, and the infectious emotion of the multitude seized on strong young men who were not ashamed. In the streets there is the same silent witness to the universal grief. The very poor are in black of some sort, as well as the rich and those of the middle class." Of course this does not signify that the Irish have



PRINCE EDWARD OF YORK,
Heir expectant to the
British throne.

plucked the shamrock from their hats, but it does show what a hold the gracious personality of the aged sovereign had taken upon a section of her subjects not usually effusive in its expression of respect for English authority. In Washington, New York, Chicago, and other American cities, the day of the funeral was not allowed to pass without marked observance. At the national capital the

flags were flown at half-mast on all government buildings, and President McKinley attended the commemorative serv-

ices in old St. John's Protestant Episcopal Church. In New York City the closing of the Stock and Produce exchanges gave an appearance of Sabbath quiet to the financial district, and many retail shops were closed. American flags, with here and there a British standard, were generally displayed at half-mast, those on the city hall presenting an unpleasant exception. It cannot be rash to say that no such tribute ever has been paid to a foreigner, least of all a crowned head, since the establishment of our government; and it is scarcely possible that persons now living will see a similar demonstration.



GEORGE FREDERICK,
Heir apparent to the
British throne.

There were inevitably discordant notes. That uproarious assembly, the Austrian *reichsrath*, outdid itself in heaping insult upon the dead queen, when the presiding officer would have done honor to her memory in his speech at the opening of the session. In Ireland, agitators were not wanting who stood aloof from the common sorrow. Perhaps our own nearest neighbor, Canada, where professions of loyalty are as insistent as anywhere, afforded the most unpleasant exhibition. Lord Minto, the viceroy, sought to observe the occasion fittingly by having services conducted under official auspices in the Protestant cathedral at Ottawa. To his surprise and dismay the premier refused to give official countenance to the service in any way, either by attendance upon it or by defraying the slight expense connected with decorating the edifice. It is said in excuse of this ungracious act that since Canada has no state church it would be illegal and improper for the government to seem to give sanction to any religious body by participation in such a service. It need not require superhuman insight, however, to perceive that behind this pretext was a real dread of arousing the clamors of the French Roman Catholics, an element much feared and courted.



While the queen's life was ebbing at Osborne House, watchers on the other side of the channel were standing by the deathbed

of an aged Frenchman whose name appears more than once in the history of his country. The Duc de Broglie was a grandson of Madame de Staël, and was a man of letters, as well as a diplomat and a statesman, his talents eventually winning for him a seat in the



M. T. STEYN,
President of the Orange
Free State.

French Academy, of which by a very rare coincidence his father was also a member. After a creditable career as a political journalist in connection with the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, and the *Correspondant* which he made the organ of his own views, he took an active hand in politics as the pilot of President MacMahon's administration. His plan was to use the old marshal's power to pave the way for the reestablishment

of the Bourbon dynasty in the person of the Comte de Chambord. With the failure of MacMahon's government, the duke retired from public view, only to emerge briefly to enter his emphatic protest when the republic began its persecution of the religious communities. It is curious to notice how the movement of political ideas in France left this honest and steadfast man alone. In the beginning he accounted himself a Liberal, standing for ideas which the English constitutional monarchy had introduced to the attention of Europe. But he remained standing where he had been at the beginning, and saw the tide of democracy and radicalism sweep past him in its rush toward socialism.

Having "shelved" the troublesome "affaire Dreyfus" by passing the general amnesty act, the French ministry, in accordance with previous announcements, presented to the Chamber of Deputies the so-called "associations" bill—the act directed specially against the religious orders, "congregations," and monastic associations. The opponents of Premier Waldeck-Rousseau and his cabinet have steadily denounced it as a revolutionary measure calculated to destroy religious freedom and to confiscate the property of the orders. There is a considerable element of truth in this, and many of the moderate

Republicans, the followers of ex-Premiers Méline and Ribot, are opposing the government in conjunction with the Nationalists, Clericals, Royalists, etc. In favor of the bill are the radicals, some of the moderates, and the socialists. Indeed, it is asserted even by friendly commentators that the cabinet is, in pressing this bill, paying the price of socialist and "leftist" support, without which it would long since have been driven from power. On the other hand, the spokesmen of the government insist that the bill is necessary to the safety of the republic, as the orders are bitterly hostile to it and in league with the nationalist and reactionary element of the army.

The principle and gist of the bill can be briefly explained. The relations between state and church in France are still regulated by the concordat concluded by Napoleon with Rome. The regular clergy are paid by the state, the republic having been loyally accepted by them. But the concordat did not mention the irregular clergy—those composing the "congregations." These have no legal status in France. They have been allowed to exist, grow, acquire immense wealth and influence, establish schools and colleges all over the land, and carry on an active propaganda. It is undoubtedly true, however, that they are irreconcilably opposed to the present government and have conspired to overthrow it. Hence the legislation against them, which, in form at least, is only restrictive and regulative.

The bill provides that all associations organized between Frenchmen and foreigners, or directed and governed from a place outside of France or established on the principle of communal life and ownership of property, shall be deemed dissolved if within six months special sanction and authority is not obtained by them from the council of state. The property of such dissolved associations is to be returned to the donors, reclaimed by those who, as heirs, may be entitled to so much of it as may have been bequeathed or transferred as a gift. Property not so reclaimed is to be appropriated for aged workmen in public institutions.

It is not supposed that any of the congregations will avail themselves of the privilege of organization under special sanction, which, of course, would mean constant supervision and restriction. The orders will prefer to suffer dissolution and the loss of their property. But, even if the act should pass both chambers of parliament, is there any real probability of a resolute attempt to

enforce it? The government may be satisfied with placing the bill on the statute books, and by its means keeping the orders within bounds. Certain it is that the Vatican will not allow the orders to be despoiled and crushed without a protest. Already the pope has threatened to retaliate by depriving France of the rôle of protector of the Catholic missions and interests in the Orient, and by asking her rival, Germany, to assume it.

The rejection of the bill would cause the fall of the Waldeck-Rousseau cabinet, which might prove a serious misfortune for France. Its passage may involve no actual injury to the "congregations." But the struggle is very bitter, and party feeling runs high. The extreme wings demand complete disestablishment—separation between church and state. But the ministry does not sympathize with any such grave consequences.



The trans-Saharan railway is a long time getting beyond the stage of discussion, but recent advances of French power in Africa and the menace of the English "Cape-to-Cairo" line, now one-third completed, have brought the interest in the project to the front in Paris. When M. Leroy-Beaulieu told the Paris Geographical Society that the road is a political, military, and commercial necessity, his audience burst into enthusiastic applause. There seems to be much difference of opinion as to routes. The favorite plan calls for the construction of a line across the desert from Algiers through the oasis of Tuat, of which France has recently taken possession, to the mud metropolis

Timbuctoo. Much has been written in advocacy of a location which should reach Lake Tchad from Algiers via the Air oasis, but M. Foureau's published impressions of the commercial value of this oasis in his recent crossing of the Sahara have been used to discredit this

route. Capt. Bonnejon, traveler and engineer, has brought out a book in support of a carefully worked out trans-Saharan railway system, to be built by the government for the protection of the French Congo. He would carry the trunk-line from Biskera, in southeastern Algeria, about fourteen hundred miles to Air, whence he would build three branches; the first to Zinder, contiguous to Lake Tchad, the second to Mao, and the third to the Upper Niger, within reach of Timbuctoo. Such a road exposed to the shifting sands of the windy desert, and to the hostility of the Tauregs, would be costly to construct, and difficult to maintain and guard; yet this officer speaks with some authority when he declares that it is indispensable to the protection of the French possessions in Central Africa that the republic should be able to throw troops into the exposed territory at three days' notice. After what has been done in America and Siberia in the way of transcontinental railroading, it would be strange indeed if in these days of international rivalry the French republic should shrink from the physical difficulties of laying three thousand miles of rails in Africa.



LORD KITCHENER,
British Commander-in-chief
in South Africa.



"HAND IN GLOVE."

— *Minneapolis Journal.*

For the following discussion of the enormous claims made against China, Mr. Guy M. Walker, who has given much of the best information to current periodicals, is authority. If the claims were limited to the actual loss of property and trade and to the claims growing out of the murder and death of foreigners, the amount would be so small that its payment would cause no embarrassment whatever to the Chinese government. If to this is added a sum sufficient to cover the claims of the native Christians and the cost of the relief expeditions, the sum will

still be insignificant compared with the enormous total now claimed. It is only by including punitive damages, or damages assessed purely for the purpose of punishment, and not to cover any actual loss, that the claims of the powers can be swelled to



GENERAL PORFIRIO DIAZ,
President of Mexico.

the enormous total of \$600,000,000. There have been about one hundred foreign missionaries murdered by the Boxers. To these, may be added about one hundred more who were killed in the defense of the legations at Peking, or so injured that their death may be attributed to wounds or hardships there endured. The whole number of claims against China on account of the death

of foreigners is thus seen to amount to less than two hundred. It has been fairly established by a long line of precedents that twenty-five thousand dollars is a reasonable indemnity for each life. Thus the aggregate claims against China on this account will not amount to over \$5,000,000. The mission property destroyed did not cost over \$2,000,000, but it is likely that the claims on this account will be swelled to \$3,000,000 to cover the increased cost of building since the uprising. Five million dollars more will certainly cover all reasonable claims for foreign property destroyed at Peking and Tien-Tsin, while \$2,000,000 would be a reasonable amount to merchants for the loss of prospective profits. If the principle of indemnifying the native Christians is accepted, which seems likely, for the Chinese authorities had already begun to do so even before diplomatic representations had been made in their behalf, the indemnity on this account should not amount to over \$10,000,000, which sum would give to ten thousand Chinese families (a liberal estimate of those that suffered) an average indemnity of one thousand dollars apiece, which, too, is liberal when it is considered that that sum would have a money value equal to \$12,500 here.

If the expenses of the other powers in the relief expedition to Peking are to be judged by those of Russia, which has stated that its total expenditures on account of its detachment therein were less than \$10,000,000,

it would seem that \$60,000,000 or \$70,000,000 would be an ample allowance on this account. The Russian detachment in the relief expedition was second only to Japan's in size, but was more expensive on account of the greater distance it was brought. Japan's expenses could not, therefore, fairly exceed another sum of \$10,000,000. Great Britain, whose detachment was third in size, has not yet indicated what its actual expenditures on this account have been, but as her detachment was largely composed of Indian troops, it should not be much larger in proportion to size than those of Russia and Japan. Our own government in December stated that the expenses of our operations in China up to that time had amounted to about \$5,000,000. The detachments of the other powers in the relief expedition were insignificant compared to those that have been mentioned specifically. It will thus be seen that \$100,000,000 would cover all fair claims against China on account of damage to foreigners, native Christians, and the relief expeditions.

The indemnities to be exacted from China should, however, not be limited to such a sum as will cover all actual loss or expenditures chargeable to her, nor to such sum as she can raise in cash, for the chief purpose of levying indemnity upon her in the present exigency is to place China under bonds to



"CHILDLIKE AND BLAND."

Chinese official: "Well, the empress is away at present; but your accounts shall be forwarded, gentlemen, and no doubt her imperial majesty will attend to them at her — Ahem! — *Earliest convenience!*"

—*London Punch.*

guarantee her future good behavior. This can only be done by imposing upon her in the form of punitive damages, such a debt as will exhaust her surplus revenues for some time to come, and so prevent the enormous purchase and manufacture of war materials and supplies that has been going on since the late Japanese war. This has undoubtedly been Germany's purpose in pouring in the large force that has ravaged the province of Pechili since the relief of Peking, and for this purpose, too, has she allowed to her officers and soldiers such enormous salaries.

Although taking little part in the relief of Peking, Germany has, on these punitive expeditions, based a claim of over \$80,000,000. With Germany making a claim of such enormous proportions, it is of course necessary for the other powers, in order to secure their fair proportion of the ultimate award, to increase their claims by including the same element of punitive damages. So it is that China today faces an enormous bill of costs aggregating \$600,000,000, an indemnity exceeded only by that enormous claim made by Germany at the end of the Franco-Prussian war for the purpose, as stated by Prince Bismarck, of "bleeding France pale."

The impression seems to prevail that China is unable to pay such an enormous claim, and that any attempt to collect it will force her into hopeless bankruptcy. The revenues of the Chinese government aggregate only a little over 90,000,000 taels (\$67,000,000) per annum. This revenue is derived from the customs duties which return 22,500,000 taels per annum; the *likin* or transit duties which return about 13,000,000 taels per annum; the salt duties which return 14,000,000 taels, and the land tax and miscellaneous revenues which return a little over 40,000,000 taels per annum. The present national debt of China is about \$250,000,000, practically all of it being incurred for the payment of the Japanese indemnity. For the security of the first \$175,000,000 of this debt, China has assigned the customs revenues of the empire which are now administered by a foreign force under the direction of Sir Robert Hart. These revenues are derived from a five per cent tax levied on all foreign trade, both export and import. This tax could easily be raised to fifteen per cent without seriously affecting Chinese trade. This increase alone would care for an additional debt of \$400,000,000. For the other \$75,000,000 of China's existing debt, the *likin* or transit duties have been assigned,

but as these duties are today the greatest hindrance to the growth of foreign trade in China, they should be abolished, and other security found for this debt.

The greatest source of imperial revenue is, however, the land tax, which yields about 33,000,000 taels a year, or more than one-third the total revenues of the government. This tax is levied directly on all the arable land in the empire in sums varying according to the quality of the land, from twenty-five cents to one dollar per acre. The collection of this tax is still in the hands of native officials, and it is known from the area and rates assessed that the sum collected originally



PROF. ELISHA GRAY,
The late American inventor.

from the people aggregates more than five times the amount returned to the imperial government. The difference between the 160,000,000 taels taken from the people and the 33,000,000 taels turned in to the imperial treasury represents the "squeeze" of the various officials through whose hands the money passes before reaching the capitol. This loss in collection of more than eighty per cent is a cost of administration unheard of in any civilized country. The customs revenues, when administered by native officials, returned the central government only about one-eighth the sum now collected under the direction of Sir Robert Hart, and the administration of China's land tax in the same manner by a foreign commissioner will undoubtedly effect a saving to the imperial government of 100,000,000 taels per annum, after paying to it a sum equal to that which it now receives from that source. This sum of 100,000,000 taels per annum would pay five per cent interest per annum on a debt of 1,000,000,000 taels (\$725,000,000) and leave a sum sufficiently large to repay the entire principal of the debt in less than twenty years. Such results can be accomplished without increasing the burden upon the people a single cent, by merely administering honestly the taxes already levied. If these sources were not sufficient to pay almost any indemnity that may be levied against China, she has additional resources

which must certainly prove ample. In that country there are as yet no taxes laid upon the manufacture either of tobacco or malt and spirituous liquors, and this source of revenue alone could likely be developed sufficiently to pay the enormous indemnity which is now claimed.



Those observers of times and customs who have a gift for detecting apparent analogies have had abundant opportunity during the past season for drawing—and in most emphatic lines—"the deadly parallel" between certain phases in Roman and in American history. A feverish desire for the acquisition of wealth, not so much for a possession as for the means of lavish and unique expenditure, was a distinctive mark of the closing days of the Roman republic and the chief characteristic of the first, seemingly brilliant, days of the world empire into which that republic merged. The decoration of rooms in which banquets were served in that elder day, and the banquets themselves with their astonishing collections of supposed dainties, gathered from all parts of the earth at incredible cost, might well test the vocabulary equipment of a modern reporter of social functions. Pliny found in the artificial growth of asparagus and the use of ice evidence of unbounded extravagance, but his criticisms received the respect usually paid to the querulous complainings of an old fogey. Nightingales, pheasants, peacocks, and flamingoes furnished dainty morsels for Roman epicures. And Cicero had a friend in the theatrical profession who paid four thousand dollars one time for a dish of singing birds. Caligula once invested the income of three provinces, something like four hundred thousand dollars, in a single banquet, and indulged in several twenty thousand dollar repasts.

The reader who has followed during the winter, even as far off as through the newspapers, the glittering social round in our cities, might have been reminded of these figures, but would doubtless have found some comfort in the reflection that the expense indicated by any high dollar-mark went chiefly into more esthetic ministry than that designed for the palate. The chef of a currently famous hostelry in our eastern metropolis is reported as saying that, really, the best he can do merely with food, no matter how large a fortune is at his command, is twenty dollars a plate. To be sure, he has been able to assemble a dinner of eighteen covers which cost rather more than

seven hundred and twenty-two dollars a plate, but most of this sum went for decorations. He is quoted as saying that, with months for preparation, he might possibly get up a dinner that should cost fifty thousand dollars, adding, we may fancy in a plaintive tone, "You could have diamonds in the meat."

Winter costumes have been much spangled with gold, according to report, or created out of fabrics interwoven with golden threads. Jewels have flashed with sunburst effect in the society columns from New York to San Francisco. Palace homes, hotels, and public buildings have been transformed into leafy groves and flower gardens in which lilies-of-the-valley and Persian orchids, white hyacinths, and roses of all the summer hues, tropic palms, and maiden-hair ferns, have been brought together in dewy freshness and in untold numbers in the very heart of wintry weather. We read of walls covered with tracery of vines abloom with pink roses, and of rooms in which a frieze of greenery serves as background for sprays of peach-blossom, while out of doors arctic cold prevailed.

One may reserve the right to hope that the loss of ideals and the degeneracy of spirit which were attendant characteristics of the rivalry in expenditure that raged in Rome before it fell from its high place among the nations are not inevitable, inseparable accompaniments of the lavish use of money for social purposes in the American republic in its preliminary period of world empire



GETTING READY FOR THE SENATE.

Mr. Roosevelt's experience in Colorado will give him good training for presiding over a rough house.

—*Minneapolis Journal.*

building, but if radical leaders read society papers they will find texts there.

It is one of the hopeful signs of the times that so widespread and serious an interest is being created in behalf of the preservation of historic as well as scenic places. The movement—for such it is rapidly becoming—owes much to the various patriotic organizations which have sprung up so plentifully during the last ten or fifteen years. The foreigner may sneer at America, and say that we have no ruins and are therefore far behind various other countries from the standpoint of the tourist; but he cannot say that we have not scores of historic places. The wisdom and necessity of preserving such places are at once apparent. In New York there is a society with this as its sole object, and under the presidency of Mr. Andrew H. Green its influence is so rapidly extending that congress has been petitioned to create a national society.

Such organizations as the Daughters of the American Revolution are doing a great deal toward the preservation of historic places and objects. A committee from this society recently had a hearing before the Senate Committee on Military Affairs in support of a bill for the purchase of the site of Washington's camp at Valley Forge, the intention being to make a national reservation of it. About the same time a delegation from Virginia appeared before the House Committee on Military Affairs to urge upon congress the propriety of acquiring the historic site at Yorktown, Virginia, where the Revolutionary struggle closed with the surrender of Cornwallis. The site which it is proposed to acquire includes five hundred acres, and the old Moore mansion where Washington, Lafayette, and Rochambeau were quartered when the surrender was consummated. Several of the state legislatures have petitioned the government to purchase the site. Of a similar character is a bill now before the New York legislature. It contemplates the expenditure of fifty thousand dollars to acquire the place known as Hamilton Grange in New York City, which was once the residence of Alexander Hamilton. It is intended also to acquire the land on which Hamilton planted the famous thirteen trees to commemorate the thirteen original states, and to remove the Grange building to that site and to use it as a historical museum, especially devoted to the Revolutionary period of our history.

The work of the Massachusetts society

for the preservation of historic places has done much to stimulate interest all over the country. For years this society has been putting tablets upon buildings and at spots which mark places of historic interest. This has been done also in a measure in New York, as well as in some other large cities, but only a comparatively few places have been indicated. In Virginia a movement is on foot to preserve and in a measure restore the Bruton parish church at Williamsburg, which, because of its relation to the early settlement of Virginia, and to Washington, makes it a particularly valuable center of historic interest, fact, and suggestion. At



GIUSEPPE VERDI,
The late Italian musical
composer.

Greenwich, Connecticut, the Putnam Hill Chapter of the Daughters of the American Revolution is planning to purchase the Putnam cottage, from which the doughty General Putnam made his escape in 1779. The society recently affixed a tablet to a boulder on the brow of Putnam hill bearing this inscription:

"This marks the spot where on February 26, 1779, General Israel Putnam, cut off from his soldiers and pursued by British cavalry, galloped down this rocky steep and escaped, daring to lead where not one of many hundred foes dared to follow."

The cottage, which is one of those quaint old homesteads with large rooms displaying fine paneling and heavy beams overhead, contains many old pieces of furniture, and the Putnam Hill Chapter has long desired to possess it, as it is particularly well adapted for a museum and a repository for the numerous relics of the Revolutionary period which the chapter owns.

It may be stated in this connection that an effort is being made by the government to secure title to the cliff-dwellers' region of New Mexico for park and scientific purposes. This plan is meeting with great favor among ethnologists and archæologists who appreciate the vast benefit that will accrue to the cause of science in having this section of New Mexico under the control of the national government. Another fact of this general character is that the commission

of New York and New Jersey which was created to secure the Palisades along the Hudson from further ravages at the hands of the stone contractors who have been blasting away the face of the cliffs for the last five or six years, has succeeded in securing the property desired, including the foot and the face of the cliffs, and it is now proposed to construct a driveway along the



HOME OF CHIEF JUSTICE MARSHALL, RICHMOND, VA.
Purchased for a memorial by the American
Bar Association.

entire river bank and to lay out a park on the top of the cliff wherever it can be done without too great expense. It seems certain that the Palisades of the Hudson, famous throughout the world, are to be preserved from the mercenary blaster.

The development of the traveling library is one of the most interesting illustrations of the impulse toward self culture that has had various manifestations among the American people. Over sixty years ago libraries were established in district schools throughout New York State, and though the plan was introduced in different communities in other states, it did not flourish then. About eight years ago State Librarian Dewey of New York sent out small libraries to several communities in the state, on condition that the books be well cared for and returned at the expiration of six months. This plan is still in successful operation, and there are now 600 traveling libraries in circulation in the state of New York. As a natural consequence in some places the little state library has stimulated the people to such an extent that larger libraries have been established. In many states the idea has taken root, especially in Kansas, Iowa, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota,

and Maine. In Ohio 711 libraries were sent out last year, making an aggregate of 19,505 volumes, over half of the books going to women's clubs, public schools, and granges. One county in Ohio has levied a tax for the support of a free public library, the trustees of which intend to send traveling libraries to all the post-offices of the county, and render these libraries as accessible as possible to the largest number of readers. One village in Wisconsin, whose inhabitants are nearly all fisher folks, raised a fund of fifty dollars which was placed in the hands of the state library commission for the purchase of a library for their village. For a rural community in which the advantages of a library are entirely lacking, as well as in the scattered farmhouses to which a current publication penetrates only at rare intervals, the coming of the traveling library is hailed as a veritable boon and benediction.

How can public school children be interested in beautifying their home surroundings? To many communities which seek an answer to this question, some account of the success achieved in one of the largest cities in the United States may prove suggestive. The Home Gardening Association of Goodrich Social Settlement, in Cleveland, Ohio, encouraged by experience among their neighborhood people, sought to extend their work last year through the public schools. With the concurrence of the school authorities the association secured a special committee of three teachers to take official charge of this movement. A circular was sent out to the teachers and pupils, explaining that packages of seeds of easily grown flowering annuals — four-o'clocks, nasturtium, zinnias, morning-glory, bachelor's buttons, larkspur, marigolds, and calendula — would be supplied to pupils at a cost of one penny per package. Each pupil received a card on which choice of nine varieties was allowed; the teachers collected the cards, and the result was that nearly fifty thousand packages were asked for.

The teachers were requested to give talks upon the preparation of soil, effects of sunshine and shade upon plants, the proper time for watering them, and other helpful hints concerning the planting and culture of flowers. On each package given out, plain directions were printed for the children to follow. Between the last of February and the middle of May the children bought 48,868 of these packages, the sale of which, at a cent apiece, covered all expenses of

introducing the experiment, the cost of over two hundred pounds of seeds (bought in bulk), envelopes, packing and printing. The fact that the movement can be made self-supporting is a point to bear in mind if public school authorities are inclined to look with disfavor upon adding to the burdens of school management.

The interest taken by both pupils and teachers in the work during the spring months led to the suggestion that, at the beginning of the school year in the fall, reports of the success of seed planting should be made and a day set apart for a flower-show, in which the children might exhibit the plants or flowers they had raised during the summer vacation. A photograph of one of these exhibits is reproduced herewith. The reports showed that about seventy-five per cent of the home gardeners thus enlisted were successful. Aside from the pleasure in growing the flowers and the improvement of the home surroundings, these reports show that the children took the greatest pleasure in sending flowers to their friends, to sick people, and to various charitable institutions.

The success of the first year of this experiment warrants enlargement of the plans for the current year. The Home Gardening Association has placed about three thousand potted bulbs in the schoolrooms during the winter season, together with printed directions for taking care of them,



GILBERT SCHOOL FLOWER-SHOW, CLEVELAND, OHIO.

and stereopticon lectures, showing what has been accomplished in the way of beautifying barren surroundings of homes in even the most congested quarters of cities, are being given from time to time. The president, Mr. E. W. Haines, says that land has been secured adjoining one of the schools, which

will be turned into a school garden this spring, and there is reason to believe that the interest aroused in the culture of flowers, through this movement, will result in the establishment of a botanical garden by the park authorities.

All doubt and speculation concerning the status of Cuba have been set at rest by the unanimous decision of the federal supreme court in the Neely case. Those Americans who had openly or insidiously propagated the idea of retaining Cuba under American sovereignty while giving her a merely nominal independence, find the difficulties in their way rendered almost insuperable by the unequivocal declarations of the court. The issue in the Neely case was narrow, but in order to decide it, it was necessary to inquire closely into the precise relations between Cuba and the United States, and to define the former's position as a political entity.

Neely was the Cuban postal agent under the authority of the president. He was accused of embezzling the funds intrusted to him, and fled to the United States. The government sought to deliver him up for trial to the Cuban military authorities, but he denied the power to extradite him. While the matter was pending in the federal courts, a special act was passed by congress to cover his case and similar exigencies. The act required the government of the United States to surrender any public officer or employee fleeing to this country after having committed a criminal act in a foreign country occupied and temporarily controlled by the United States. The constitutionality of that legislation was at once challenged on several grounds, including the allegation that, peace having been restored in Cuba, our military occupation was without warrant.

The court sustained the extradition act, and held it applicable to Cuba. Was Cuba to be deemed a foreign country? Yes, answered the court, in view of the avowed objects intended to be accomplished by the war with Spain and by the military occupation of the island. By the joint resolution of April 20, 1898, recalls the decision, the legislative and executive branches of the government disclaimed any purpose to exercise sovereignty, jurisdiction, or control over Cuba except for the pacification thereof, and asserted the determination of the United States, the object of the intervention being accomplished, to leave the government of the island to its own people. The peace treaty placed the United States in temporary juris-

diction, but did not destroy the essential status of Cuba. The occupancy of the island was the necessary result of the war, and could not have been avoided consistently with the principles of international laws or our moral obligations. The opinion continues:

All that has been done in relation to Cuba has had that end in view, and, so far as the court is informed by the public history of the relations of this country with that island, nothing has been done inconsistent with the declared object of the war with Spain. Cuba is none the less foreign territory within the meaning of the act of congress because it is under a military governor appointed by and representing the president in the work of assisting the inhabitants of that island to establish a government of their own, under which as a free and independent people they may control their own affairs without interference by other nations.

The duty devolved, and still devolves, upon the United States to protect in all appropriate legal modes the lives, liberties, and property of the Cubans. This being so, what legislation, asks the court, could be more appropriate for such protection than that which provides for the surrender to the constituted authorities of the island of fugitives who had committed crime or abused the trust of the people of Cuba? The fact that there is no indictment by grand jury, nor trial by petit jury in Cuba is immaterial, for the constitution of the United States does not extend to the island, it being "foreign" in every sense of the term. Offenders must submit to such modes of trial and punishment as are in force there.

Some commentators have professed to discern in this decision an indication of the supreme court's position on the Porto Rican and Philippine question, but the cases are in no wise parallel. Cuba was not ceded to us, while Porto Rico and the Philippines were, and we certainly exercise in them sovereignty, control, and jurisdiction. They are not foreign, but territory of the United States. The question to be settled with respect to them is whether the bill of rights and the taxation-and-uniformity provision extend to them *ex proprio vigore*. No one pretends that our constitution applies to foreign countries, but are Porto Rico and the Philippines "foreign" in one sense and American in another?



The Philippine problem has forced itself on the attention of the people in various forms. Much was said about it in congress during the discussion of the army reorganization act, and wide comment was elicited by a petition presented by Senator Teller of Colorado from two thousand Filipinos living in Manila and immediate vicinity. Accord-

ing to Senators Teller and Hoar the signers are all responsible and leading Filipinos—merchants, lawyers, bankers, ex-officers, and other educated men. They state that the insurrection is a national movement; that no element of the population is even reconciled to American rule; that independence has long been the hope and ardent desire of the Filipinos, and that the United States can obtain peace only by promising them such independence. The document was exhaustive and written in respectful terms. Its authenticity and representative value have been questioned, but President Schurman, the head of the first civil commission in the Philippines, agrees with those who believe that the petition correctly portrays existing conditions. General MacArthur, too, has admitted in his report that the population is generally hostile to the United States, and that even those who have taken the oath of allegiance, and even places of honor and public trust under our authority, have secretly aided the insurrection.

At the same time the Taft commission continues to take a hopeful view of the situation. In its second report to Secretary Root the commission states that since the late American elections there has been "a great decrease in insurgent activity," and that "from now on conditions will grow steadily better." The commission further says that all the information it is able to obtain leads it to the belief that "a great majority of the people long for peace, and are entirely willing to accept the establishment of a government under the supremacy of the United States. They are, however," it adds, "restrained by fear from taking any



"FEED ME."

—Cleveland Plain Dealer.

action to assist the suppression of the insurrection."

The commission earnestly recommends the adoption by congress of the Spooner resolution, introduced many months ago, which confers upon the president full power to establish a civil government in the islands or in any part of them. Quasi-civil government satisfies nobody, it seems, and the time has come, in the commission's judgment, to extend to the Filipinos the benefits of complete civil government. It observes on this point:

Passage of Spooner bill at present session greatly needed to secure best result from improving conditions. Until its passage no purely central civil government can be established, no public franchise of any kind granted, and no substantial investment of private capital in internal improvements possible. All are needed as most important step in complete pacification. Strong peace party organized with defined purpose of securing civil government under United States, and reasonably expect civil government and relief from inevitable but annoying restraints of military rule long before subject can be taken up by new congress.

But there is not the least likelihood of such action by congress at the present session—first because time is lacking, and second because Senator Spooner himself, with many other Republicans, feels that the data in the possession of congress are insufficient and that more light is needed. He has declared himself in favor of a congressional committee, nonpartisan and representative, appointed for the purpose of visiting the Philippines and making a searching examination of political, military, and other conditions by means of public hearings and inquiries at various cities and towns of the archipelago. This proposal has been indorsed

in many quarters, but it has not escaped bitter attack.

Protestant leaders in this country are not inclined to look with favor upon wholesale accessions in the Philippines. General Morgan, who is secretary of the American Baptist Home Mission Society, says thousands have sought admission to Baptist organizations in eastern Cuba and Porto Rico, and that, if encouragement had been afforded, as general changes could have been recorded as are reported from Manila. Private advices are to the effect that in all of the countries named the number seeking to leave the Roman communion is larger than the telegraph reports indicate. But the religious bodies which they seek to join have instructed their missionaries to insist upon the fact that Christianity is a matter of the heart, not of the head, and for the most part that all old practises must be left behind. Concerning the rumors that the converts may bring their church buildings with them, and thus save new churches being erected, officers of mission boards here say that no property complications are anticipated, because so far as they can control none will be accepted until the courts have acted. Everybody recognizes that this question of title to church property is one of the most difficult any government was ever called upon to deal with, and that trouble in many forms is more than likely to arise. The suggestion of the Philippine Commission that the government buy the land from the friars, and resell it to the settlers, pleases nobody—the friars because they do not wish to retire, the Protestants because they question the validity of the land titles, and members of the senate and house because such course would leave Luzon churches without endowment, and the Filipinos still untrained to support religious work by voluntary contributions.



THE POLITICAL MRS. NATION.

—*Minneapolis Tribune.*

Ritualist leaders in England are claiming that the accession of King Edward VII. will help their cause. The late queen was a pronounced broad churchwoman, and especially anxious that things should continue as they are. The Oxford movement began almost with the accession of Victoria, but it never attracted the favor of the official head of the church. King Edward is declared to be more liberal. He has seen the church roused from its lethargy by the advanced party. Hence he will be more tolerant of it. The King of England is no more sovereign of the spiritual than of the political

realm, and any change that his accession at this time may bring about will be wielded through social influence, if at all. The new King Edward and Queen Alexandra have long taken more than mere passing interest in church work. There are those who hold, and others who deny, that the ecclesiastical laws of England have force in the Episcopal Church in America. An effort is just now making to establish a periodical, to be the organ of the "Catholic" party in both countries. The aim of the party is to restore the practises and teaching of the church as they were before the Reformation. General regret is expressed over the prospect of the Anglo-American periodical, fearing that it will bring into the Episcopal Church here the dissensions in the church in England, and perhaps result in a brood of American Kentsits.

Christian Endeavor, as a movement, was twenty years old last month, and to celebrate the anniversary a national and a state convention were held conjointly in Williston Church, Portland. The number of societies has grown from one to 60,750, and members from 57 to 3,500,000. The five years from 1880 to 1885 were remarkably prolific of young people's religious movements, such rising in many religious bodies, and getting into workable shape by 1890. President Clark points out the change, perhaps a little severely, when he says that in 1881 the young people were neglected in church life. It is safe to reply that there has never been a time when churches greatly neglected their young people, at least not since the days of Robert Raikes. At any rate, it is true now, as President Clark points out, that the religious training of the young is among the foremost purposes of every church. Endeavorers from every country under the sun contributed to the cost of a tablet that has just been placed in Williston Church commemorating the anniversary.

The Catholic Young Men's National Union is an organization having a membership of about sixty thousand, coming chiefly from parishes in the large cities of the east. Its objects are, for the most part, those of the Young Men's Christian Association, although it has until now been parochial. Its recent annual meeting called attention to the fact that many Catholic young men are in regular Christian associations because there are no Catholic associations, with buildings, gymnasiums, clubs, and the like. The Brooklyn

Union now announces its purpose to erect such a union building, modeled in all respects upon the association idea, including the restaurant and the religious services. During the war with Spain Archbishop Corrigan of New York was asked what the difficulty was with the Catholic Church in Cuba and the Philippines. He replied that it was about four hundred years behind the times. Asked where his marker was, where it was up to the times, he instanced the United States, and when asked why, he gave among other reasons the influence of Protestantism. In many large cities today Catholic parishes have Sunday-schools conducted in all essentials as a Methodist or a Baptist pastor would plan and conduct such.

A fifth order has decided to erect a house of studies to be affiliated with the Roman Catholic University at Washington. It is the Fathers of St. Sulpice, a French order long ago transplanted here, and now strongest in the archdiocese of Baltimore. From the beginning of the university it has had charge of the instruction in its divinity school. Orders with houses already erected near the university are the Franciscans, Congregation of the Holy Cross, the Paulists, and the Marists, besides Trinity College for



ELECTRIC TOWER, PAN-AMERICAN EXPOSITION.

women, which is near, but not affiliated with the university. These houses are intended, for the most part, to provide homes for novices of the orders while taking lectures at the university.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE STUDY OF GREEK AND FRENCH IN AMERICAN COLLEGES.

BY CHARLES W. E. CHAPIN.



THE beginning of the educational system of our country was a transplanting of shoots from the classical vine of Old England. The Puritans had been here but a little time when they cast about for ways and means to establish a university. Their strenuous efforts resulted in the founding of Harvard College in 1636. As early as 1642, and for many years, the conditions of admission were as follows:

"Whoever shall be able to read Cicero or any other such like classical author at sight, and make and speak true Latin in verse and prose, *suo ut aiunt Marte*, and decline perfectly the paradigms of nouns and verbs in the Greek tongue: Let him then and not before be capable of admission into the college."

In the preparation of young men in the classics there seems to have been a prophecy of modern language methods. This work was usually in the hands of the parish minister, and Latin was taught as a spoken language. Frequent walks in the fields and woods were made the occasion for talking in Latin. Professor George Gary Bush says:

"The time was then specially favorable to this method of study, as few books were accessible, and such as they had, like the Bible, they knew almost by heart. This outdoor life and daily communion with nature also helped to develop good moral and physical constitutions, and so in spite of the poverty of books, by this training the foundation was laid for many a noble life and for high scholarly attainments."

After the proper steps for matriculation, the student pursued for three years a course which embraced the following studies: arithmetic, geometry, rhetoric, logic, ethics, physics, metaphysics, politics, Hebrew, Chaldean, Syriac, Latin, Greek, English, and divinity. The Old and New Testaments were the principal books for the study of the Hebrew, Greek, and Latin languages, but during its first century the course in Greek and Latin was considerably enlarged, and in 1726 an official report of the tutors mentions as Latin authors read, Cicero, Virgil, Tully, in Greek, the New Testament, the Greek catechism, and the grammar continued to be studied.

The strong theological trend of life in Puritan New England is noticeable in everything. Yale College, founded sixty-four

years after Harvard, maintained for its first century a course of study similar in its narrowness and theological character to that in the older institution. The laws of Yale College for 1720 and 1726 thus outline the curriculum:

"In the first year after admission, on the four first days of the week, all students shall be exercised in the Greek and Hebrew tongues only; beginning logic in the morning at the latter end of the year, unless their tutors see cause by reason of their ripeness in the tongues to read logic to them sooner. They shall spend the second year in logic with the exercise of themselves in the tongues; the third year principally in physics, and the fourth year in metaphysics, still carrying on the former studies. But in all classes the last days of the week are allowed for rhetoric, oratory, and divinity."

The first attempt to introduce a modern language at Harvard failed ignominiously, through the indiscretion of the teacher. About 1735 a number of the students were allowed by the faculty to take lessons in the French language of a certain Frenchman, Longloissorie by name. This man had no official connection with the college, nor was the study of French recognized as any part of the curriculum. Very soon Longloissorie was charged with disseminating doctrines not consistent with the safety of the college. He asserted, the charge ran, that "he saw visions, and that revelations were made to him," the character of which was opposed to social and civil authority. When the authorities learned of these heresies they forbade the students to attend his lectures. For nearly fifty years afterwards no further attempt was made to introduce the study of modern languages in the New England colleges.

As the seventeenth century drew near its close, the second American institution of higher learning was established, the College of William and Mary, at Williamsburg, Virginia, in 1691. For nearly a hundred years this college followed the classical lines. Then, Jefferson, "the first champion of modern studies in the college curriculum," began to exert his influence for reform and progress. In 1779, while governor of the commonwealth of Virginia, he was elected one of the visitors of William and Mary College. Of his achievements in the broad-

ening of the college, he says in his autobiography:

"I effected, during my residence in Williamsburg that year, a change in the organization of that institution, by abolishing the grammar school and the two professorships of divinity and oriental languages, and substituting a professorship of law and police, one of anatomy, medicine, and chemistry, and one of modern languages."

To Jefferson then, as Professor Adams affirms, must be given the credit of introducing "the first distinctly modern currents into the curriculum of William and Mary." This fact, in its relation to the development of the course of study in American colleges, is further brought out in that interesting historical pamphlet, "The Making of the Nation, the Contribution of the College of William and Mary," which was prepared by the president of the college, Lyon G. Tyler, who states that his college "was the first to abandon the Oxford curriculum and to adopt the elective system, which it did as early as 1779 under the auspices of Thomas Jefferson." Again, President Tyler says: "There can scarcely be any doubt that the chair of Mr. Bellini, of modern languages, embracing French, Italian, Spanish, and German, established in 1779, was the first of its kind in the United States." From this time on there seems to have been no period when the modern languages did not have an honorable place in the curriculum of William and Mary College.

An incident at Brown University shows the influence the Revolutionary war exerted toward bringing about a greater openness to foreign influences. In 1776 the city of Providence was in the hands of the British. The college was actually closed until May, 1782. When finally opened, the building was found to be in very bad condition owing to its occupancy as barracks and as a hospital. After the college was reopened, President Manning felt the need of broadening the college curriculum by the introduction of the study of the French language, and the following memorial was drawn up to the French king in the hope that a collection of books and a professor might be secured. The memorial is reproduced in Dr. William Howe Tolman's "History of Higher Education in Rhode Island," and reads:

"Ignorant of the French language, and separated as we were by more than mere distance of countries, we too readily imbibed the prejudices of the English—prejudices which we have renounced since we have a nearer view of the brave army of France, who actually inhabited this college edifice; since which time our youth seek with avidity whatever can give them infor-

mation respecting the character, genius and influence of a people they have such reason to admire—a nation so eminently distinguished for polished humanity. To satisfy this laudable thirst for knowledge nothing was wanting but to encourage and diffuse the French language; and that not merely as the principal means of rendering intercourse with our brethren of France more easy and beneficial, but also for spreading far and wide the history of so celebrated a race of kings, statesmen, philosophers, poets, and benefactors of mankind which France has produced."

The matter of presenting this interesting address to the French king was entrusted to Thomas Jefferson, but he deemed the time inexpedient, and nothing came of the matter. The course of study at Brown University continued within classical confines until the administration of Francis Wayland, the prince among American educators. During his administration, which extended from 1826 to 1855, President Wayland elaborated a university plan which was new to American institutions, and which was in many respects original with him. In this report, which he presented to the corporation, Dr. Wayland appeared before the whole country as the advocate of a "new system in education." Among the things recommended in the report were the following: a course in Latin, occupying two years; a course in Greek, two years; a course in three modern languages. The report, though favorably received, was only partially put into operation.

The most decided impetus to the study of modern languages was given by Henry Wadsworth Longfellow at Bowdoin. In his inaugural address, delivered August 17, 1830, Professor Longfellow set forth that spirit which he, more than any other man, has caused to prevail in modern language study. He said:

"I cannot regard the study of a language as the pastime of a listless hour. To trace the progress of the human mind through the development of language, to learn how other nations thought and felt and spoke, to enrich the understanding by opening upon it new sources of knowledge, and by speaking many tongues, to become a citizen of the world—these are objects worthy the exertion their attainment demands at our hands."

With such a spirit, and with his attainments and enthusiasm for his theme, it is no wonder that Professor Longfellow had loyal pupils and that he awakened lifelong enthusiasm. One of his pupils, the Rev. Dr. Samuel Harris, thus writes of him:

"He had secured a large place for his department in the curriculum and he awakened great enthusiasm among the students. . . . Under his teaching we were able to gain a knowledge of these languages which it was easy to retain and complete after graduation so as to use them through life in the study of their

respective literatures. But he did not attempt to teach us to converse in them. His literary attainments, spirit, and enthusiasm did not fail to exert an inspiring and refining influence on those thus associated with him through four years."

Throughout New England colleges at this time the classics yet held their honorable and prescribed position and were in the main taught in the old time-honored way. Modern languages held a very uncertain place indeed. At Harvard, Professor Ticknor was professor of modern languages, but their place there was far less prominent than at Bowdoin under Henry Longfellow. At Yale, teachers in French and Spanish were recommended by the faculty, but the students paid extra fees for such instruction, and the modern languages were not recognized in the course for a degree.

But Harvard was awake and preparing for leadership. In 1836 Professor Longfellow accepted the chair of modern languages which Harvard offered him. Professor Ticknor wrote just before his resignation in 1833:

"I have succeeded entirely, but I can get these changes carried no farther. As long as I hoped to advance them, I continued attached to the college; when I gave up all hope I determined to resign. If therefore the department of modern languages is right, the rest of the college is wrong."

In spite of seeming obstacles Professor Longfellow entered upon his work with enthusiasm. Dr. Edward Everett Hale, in his recent book, "Lowell and His Friends," thus writes of Harvard in 1834:

"In this college they studied Latin, Greek, and mathematics chiefly. But on modern language days, which were Monday, Wednesday, and Friday, there appeared teachers of French, Italian, Spanish, German, and Portuguese. Everybody not a freshman could take his choice of these, called 'voluntaries;' when you had once chosen you had to keep on for four terms. But as to college marks and the rank which followed, a modern language was worth only half a classical language."

Then he speaks of Professor Longfellow:

"In 1836, when Lowell was a sophomore, Mr. Longfellow came to Cambridge, a young man, to begin his long and valuable life in the college. His presence there proved a benediction, and, I might say, marks an epoch in the history of Harvard. . . . He was fresh from Europe and gave the best possible stimulus to the budding interest in German literature."

A recent report shows that Harvard now offers three hundred and forty-six distinct courses from which the student elects, guided by his own needs and by the counsel of the professor in charge of the department or courses. In Greek language and literature fifteen courses are given, in German eighteen courses, in French fourteen courses, in Italian

and Spanish three courses each; while numerous and extended courses are offered in Greek and Romance philology. The catalogues and bulletins of our other great universities, east, west, and south, show in many instances almost as great equipment and as liberal and extensive courses.

A study of catalogues and schemes of studies, both required and elective, reveals the great development which has taken place in the Greek and French courses in our colleges and universities. The smallest college in the land gives a broader course in the languages, both ancient and modern, than Harvard gave a century ago. Only types can be given showing the courses provided in our institutions.

In some of the smaller colleges of the east, as well as the south and west, the professor in charge of one of the classics also gives instruction in one of the modern languages. In the Hampden-Sidney College, Virginia, which has maintained its rank for a century and a quarter, the professor of Greek is also professor of French, yet so well are the courses distributed that before the college career is ended the student has been introduced to the best literature of the Greek and the French civilization. In both, an accurate knowledge of the structural elements of the language is encouraged, and special emphasis is placed upon "the literature as a whole and its development as an expression of the nation's part and influence on the world's history."

At Brown the spirit of the Greek department is thus expressed:

"In our college work we lay emphasis on the humanizing element in Greek. We want to make good Grecians in the ordinary acceptance of the term, but one must use Greek literature, not as a discipline only, but for enlightenment and inspiration. We would not slight the letter, but we magnify the spirit. We seek to make the student at home under Greek skies and the atmosphere of old Greek life and art and thought."

Syracuse University is a unique example of rapid and strong growth among the younger institutions. Its courses are too numerous and too extended to admit of particular mention, but this statement comes from the French department:

"Most stress is laid upon the literature and philosophy. The attempt is constantly made to show that an intimate relation exists between the history and the literature of France, that from 1550 down to the present time there has been a continuous and readily traceable development."

Among colleges for women, Vassar is notable in that from the first French was put on a footing of absolute equality with Greek.

About ten years ago the department was enlarged, and additional French literary courses were given to parallel the courses in the history of the French Revolution and of contemporary France. The aim of the department is mental discipline and moral inspiration, and to bring the pupil face to face with the literature as it affects the national life.

Oberlin College, in the middle west, asks an entrance requirement in three languages, and that the student have at least some proficiency in one modern language. The conditions of the middle west are such that the majority of those entering Oberlin present German instead of French, and in the elective college courses German is in the lead because of its supposed greater utility. The French department, which for the last ten years has been known as the Romance department, is strong and progressive. The aim of the department, while not losing sight of the important work of pronunciation and grammatical structure, is this: "To teach that which will build up noble thoughts and character, and to show the place and importance of French in the world's literature." For practical ends there is the "Cercle Français" where French only is spoken, and the required work of the college is supplemented by reading additional French authors in the language.

The University of California at Berkeley offers all that well-nigh unlimited resources can give. Greek is demanded for entrance and must be taken in course through the freshman year, after which it is elective. The work of the freshman year is largely in the grammar and the study of language forms, after which the work is rapidly progressive, reaching to careful study of classical archaeology, including sculpture, architecture, the monuments, topography, and the Acropolis of Athens.

The University of Chicago has attracted attention by some decided but well sustained departures from tradition, especially in its classical departments. The statement is that three majors are now required in Greek, one in Xenophon's "Memorabilia" and Plato's "Apology," one major in the "Odyssey," and the third major to be selected by the student from the wide field of electives offered. A course which has awakened much interest among educators is a Greek course in English, which is thus described by the head of the department:

"A department of literature in English has been in the university within the last two years,

and courses in Greek literature, through the medium of translation, are offered in connection with courses in literature of other nations through the medium of English. The English-Greek work of this department is not distinct from that of other work, but is part of it. A few courses are offered each year and they appeal to a few persons who have no knowledge of the Greek language; and some of those who have a knowledge of the language have taken these courses as well. But experience so far seems to show that students who know the Greek language prefer courses in Greek literature through the medium of the Greek language."

At the opening of the university a few courses in archaeology were offered, but these have developed until now they comprise a distinct department. A very strong influence for this development came from the American school at Athens in which the University of Chicago has been represented both by instructors and students. The work in the French department has been equally strong and broad, and has in a general way been conducted like that of the Greek department. The emphasis of instruction is at first on the language, then upon the literature, and in the graduate work upon the philology.

After a study of the development of courses in Greek and French in American colleges and universities, and a survey of the place which each occupies in them today, the conclusion must be reached that neither has expanded at the expense of the other. When the modern languages secured a recognition approaching that of the classics, the place of the classics was enlarged. Another fact to be noted is that French, from the first, possessed a more humanizing interest and the methods used in teaching it were more natural; it is a living language, and possesses contemporary interests and influences. These things pointed the way to a better illumination of the classics.

The strife between the classics and the modern languages has virtually ceased; each group has its honorable place and both groups are to be desired. The world's history is not a volume of "hit and miss sketches," but is a story, the unity of which has been maintained from the first until now, and chapter is yet growing into chapter; its conclusion is far removed. Languages, literatures, and civilizations are the chapters in this yet open book; they are related as the members of an organism. Whoever reads the story, whether in the languages and literatures in which it stands originally told, or as transcribed and transposed into his own mother tongue, will find the "increasing purpose" of all the ages.

FROM PINDAR.



PINDAR is the unchallenged chief of lyric poets of all time. Homer, Virgil, Dante may dispute the supremacy in epic poetry; Sophocles, Molière, Shakespeare may each have claims upon the primacy in drama; but none is so bold as to challenge comparison with Greece's greatest master of exalted, sonorous, majestic song. The ancients were less careful of biographical details than we moderns, and Pindar is only one of many great men whose birth we cannot exactly date. He was born about 521 B. C., near Thebes, in Boeotia, a country whose people were regarded with contempt by the keen-witted Athenians because of their general intel-

lectual dulness. But Pindar won a hearing and fame everywhere and became the great Greek national poet.

It is impossible to give any adequate translation of his noble odes, in which he sang the praises of the victors in the athletic games at Olympia and elsewhere. The following lines are the only considerable fragment of a dirge, perhaps in honor of some youthful athlete, in which the poet pictures the state of the dead. They form one of the comparatively few passages in Greek literature dealing with this theme, and their tone is in quite distinct contrast to most of the others in its hope of a happy immortality. — *Prof. W. A. Elliott, Allegheny College.*

LITERAL TRANSLATION.

Τοῖσι	λάμπει	μὲν	μένος	δελίου	τὰν ἐνθάδε	νύκτα	κάτω,
For them	glows brightly	the	power	of the sun	there	at night	down below
φοινικορόδοις	δ' ἐν	λειμώνεσσιν	προάστιον	αὐτῶν			
red-with-roses	and in the midst of	meadows	-(is) pleasure-ground	their			
καὶ	λιβάνῳ	σκιερὸν	καὶ	χρυσέοις	καρποῖς	βεβριδός.	
both	with the	shaded	and	golden	with fruits	loaded.	
	incense-tree						
Καὶ	τοὶ	μὲν	ἵπποις	γυμνασίῳ	τε, τοὶ δὲ	παισσοῖς,	
And	some	with horses	feats-of-skill	some	with checkers		
τοὶ δὲ	φορμύγεσσι	τέρπονται,	παρὰ	δὲ	σφισιν	εὐανθής	
and some	with harps	delight themselves among	and	them	blooming		
	ἅπας	τέθλεν	ὄλβος.				
	all	abounds	joy				
ὀσμὴ	δ'	ἐρατὸν	κατὰ	χωρὸν	κιδναται		
fragrance	also	delectable	throughout	place	is spread abroad		
αἰεὶ	θύα	μιγνύντων	πυρὶ	τηλεφανεῖ	παντοῖα		
evermore	offerings	they mingle	in fire	far-seen	all sorts of		
	θεῶν	ἐπὶ	βωμοῖς.				
	of the gods	upon	altars.				

PROSE TRANSLATION.

For them in the world below, while it is night here, the sun glows brightly, and in the midst of meadows red with roses is their pleasure-ground,* shaded with the incense-tree and loaded with golden fruits. Some delight themselves with horses and with feats of skill, some with draughts, and some with harps, and all bright-blooming joy abounds among them. Throughout that place is spread abroad a delectable fragrance, as evermore they mingle all sorts of offerings in the far-seen flames upon the altars of the gods.

*The word translated here "pleasure-ground" and rendered in the poetical translation "city of the tombs," means strictly a space outside a city gate, a suburb. Its significance here is due to the reference to the main pleasure-ground of Athens, which lay among the olive trees and garden outside the Dipylon Gate, in the same quarter where was the street of tombs lined with beautiful and costly monuments.

—W. A. Elliott.

METRICAL TRANSLATION.

For them the night all through,
In that broad realm below,
The splendor of the sun spreads endless light;
'Mid rosy meadows bright,
Their city of the tombs with incense-trees,
And golden chalices
Of flowers, and fruitage fair,
Scenting the breezy air,
Is laden. There with horses and with play,
With games and lyres, they while the hours away.

On every side around
Pure happiness is found,
With all the blooming beauty of the world;
There fragrant smoke, upcurled
From altars where the blazing fire is dense
With perfumed frankincense,
Burned unto gods in heaven,
Through all the land is driven,
Making its pleasant places odorous
With scented gales and sweet airs amorous.
—John Addington Symonds.

"OH, WHAT IS ABROAD IN THE MARSH?"

BY N. HUDSON MOORE.

THE first day in March that is in the least lambl-like, I hasten to the bog. There I am sure to find some of the earliest signs of spring. In fact, before I get there I hear them, for the little dwellers in the swamp are as anxious as I am to be out of doors. I pass through the "Forest of Arden," my thicket of trees beside the "Wide Waters," as the canal feeder is called, and seek the lower level beyond the locks. Here are signs of spring indeed.

Do you know that mottled spear poking through the black, soggy soil? All winter, like a lance in rest, it has waited for the first moment of loosening frost to thrust itself forth. It is the sheath which protects the spadix covered with the minute flowers of the skunk-cabbage. This plant is always an object of compassion on account of its ugly name. How far it is removed in beauty from its cousin, the fair, white calla lily! Yet there are compensations even for the skunk-cabbage. It is welcomed as a first comer, and is eagerly sought, not by vendors alone who sell it on our city streets as a rare foreign lily, but by the bees.

You will be surprised, till you come to note it down, how early the bees start upon their labors. In the latitude of New York you may see these active miracles making a bee-line for the bog as early as the first week in March. Not the bumblebees, but those naturalized citizens, the honey-bees, are these first comers, hurrying along as soon as their chilled wings can bear them, eagerly searching for our poor despised friend, the swamp or skunk-cabbage.

If you ask what it is that the bee seeks in this humble plant, go to the bog and watch. Here comes a bee, not as gaily and lightly as she will fly a month later, but oh, how eagerly. She fairly rushes into the homely horn of the cabbage, the point of which has been turned to one side, and lights on the spadix. How she revels in the wealth of pollen stored there!

The very first thing a bee needs in the spring is pollen for bee-bread, and how well she knows where to get it, even before pussy-willow or the catkins dangle in the breeze. She is in an ecstasy of pleasure, rolling in it, kicking it about and throwing it around

till it gets all over her back and body. When she is fairly dusted with it, she neatly combs it off with those handy little implements she carries on her legs, moistens it a bit, rolls it, pats it until she gets a load into her pollen-baskets, then home she flies.

Is not the odor of the skunk-cabbage a hint to the bee as it is to the small black flies which come to it later? Nature never works without a definite object even in so evanescent a thing as an odor. Later in the year when the skunk-cabbage spreads abroad its heavily-veined, large leaves, it loses to a great extent the coarse smell which clung



SKUNK-CABBAGE.

to it in pollen time. It is a plant which it is pleasing to watch in all its forms. It has a quiet patience all its own, working out its destiny, which is to ripen seeds, without hurry and without fuss. This process takes the whole summer, for it is not till September that the hard, round, bullet-like seeds are ready to be shed.

All the time that we have been watching bee and plant, the air has been filled with a cheerful thrilling whistle quite delightful to the ear.

When one visits the bog for the first time

it is generally with the delusion that all the music there is made by the bull-frog in the pool, and that all frogs are about the size of the common garden toad. It is with wonder that we find how tiny are these first shrillers, the adult specimens of several species not being more than an inch, or an inch and a half long. All over the country one may find varieties of these little peepers, and they amply repay study. Even if one may not discover any new fact about them, it is pleasant to verify old ones; and the knowledge of each form of life wrested from nature forms a bank on which to draw for future reference, and a source of unestimated pleasure.

In watching these small frogs the first fact brought to your attention is the volume of sound produced by the small organ they undoubtedly possess. As soon as the ice melts somewhat, they leave the mud where they have lain all winter, and pipe the coming of the vernal season.

The one with the most thrilling note is Pickering's frog (*Hyla Pickeringii*). He is yellowish in color, marked with darker spots of the same color. More ornate in dress is the pretty "bog cricket" (*Acris gryllus*). His coat is a hunter's green, picked out with spots of black, and tracings of white and rusty red. He is very abundant in New Jersey swamps, but seldom found farther north than Connecticut.



HYLA PICKERINGII.

There is a western peeper, easily distinguished by his markings. He is called the "three-striped frog," and is of the same diminutive size as those already mentioned. If you can catch a sight of one of these bags-o'-wind, a Pickering's frog, for example, you will be well repaid for a long, cold tramp. He has a sac of loose skin beneath his chin, and it is this bag which he swells up, and then with all his strength expels the air, almost suffering collapse with the effort. In a moment, however, he is at it again, and the shrill whistle quavers on the air.

His sojourn in the bog is his nuptial trip,

for it is in the water that the eggs are laid. After the breeding season ends, they leave the bog, and, aided by the little pads upon their toes, climb trees and live in bushes and vines.

For the last year or two several of these tiny creatures have lived for weeks in a honeysuckle vine under constant observation. It is a mystery when they sleep. Their piping is heard the last thing at night; one cannot get out on the piazza before they are choiring in the morning, and they keep it up with more or less vigor even through the noontide.

Pickering's frog has a large range, from the plains to the Atlantic, and from Florida to Canada.

There is a southern frog, small and musical also, with a range from the far south to North Carolina. It is one of the varieties of the *Acris gryllus*. Its cousin, the *Acris gryllus crepitans*, has a more northern range, which is being slowly extended. The genus *Hyla* includes fully one-half of that great family *Hylidae* which spreads itself over the leafy part of the world. It is largely by its ministrations that the great army of insect pests is kept within reasonable bounds, and we salute our little friends in the bog, not only for their cheerful minstrel qualities, but on account of the noble work they do as hunters.

When we consider the millions of eggs deposited by these different species of frogs, it seems as if at any time a plague of them might overrun the earth. There is, however, a variety of causes which keep them reduced to reasonable limits. Many of the pools where these eggs are placed dry up in the hot sun, and the tadpoles perish in uncounted numbers. Snakes find the young frogs particularly tasty morsels; birds devour many more, and worst of all the larger batrachians devour countless numbers of their weaker and smaller relations.

It is easy and interesting to obtain from the edge of marshy water some of the egg masses, and watch them develop through the successive stages of egg, tadpole, and frog. As they emerge into the frog state and the breathing apparatus changes, you must lower the water in the vessel which contains them, and provide bits of wood for them to rest upon in the air. It is only kind to liberate them when an insect diet becomes necessary.

There is another resident in the marsh that I hope to catch a glimpse of on my earliest visit. I look for him in pools and ponds, and, though I can see him all summer, he is more interesting now. To find something so lively with the temperature about

forty degrees is to put new life into one! He is a water-beetle (*Gyrinus*), and he circles round in such a lively manner that the name "whirligig," has been given him. Nature has been lavish in fitting him out to cope with fate. His feet are webbed for swimming. If this mode of progression wearies him, he may unsheath a pair of gauzy wings which are snugly tucked away beneath a pair of shiny black covers. Lest he should find difficulty in rising to the surface after one of his lightning dives, a bubble of air is caught below the tips of his wing-cases. It makes him so buoyant that if he wishes to stay below he has fairly to hang on to weeds or roots. Then, too, what an outfit he has for spying enemies. He can see our approach from afar with that pair of eyes on the top of his head. If some hungry creature prowls below him he can swim out of the way like a flash, for he has a pair of eyes looking downward, protected by good strong goggles. When Dame Nature goes to work, how she perfects a thing! Look at the whirligig; examine a bee; study the skunk-cabbage. How could a frog be better adapted to its conditions of life?

MARCH NOTES.

A correspondent in Southern California thus describes Christmas day: "We spent the whole day out of doors enjoying the sunshine, birds, and flowers. We did not see a white man during the whole time, and only a few Indians." This seems almost like a return to the days of 1492.

In this less ardent climate I feel satisfied during the first week in March with bee, blossom, and beetle. Twice during the last half dozen years I have had the happiness of hearing robin sing on March 12. In the west, even in this latitude, he sometimes appears by mid-February. In the south Atlantic states he comes early too, but north of New York he is in good time if he arrives by the middle of March.

The third week is more eventful yet, for,

"Hark! 'Tis the bluebird's venturesome strain,"

that salutes us some morning unexpectedly. Sometimes after the arrival of the earliest birds we may be afflicted with a blizzard. It is then that the bird-lovers should be up and doing. We should see that those birds about our houses have plenty of food. A "bird-hash" of crumbs, bird-seed, bits of chopped meat, and even scraps from the table, proves acceptable to seed- and insect-eaters alike. Do not forget a pan of water also.

Our public parks yield many surprises. Last March I had a unique experience in Central Park, New York. Wandering through the shrubbery and hoping at best only to see the glossy English starlings which have become domesticated in the upper part of the city, I

was suddenly arrested by a song, a bird song so thrilling, so pervading, such prodigality of music that several minutes passed before the opera-glasses were called into play to find the singer.

There he was on a bare twig, a perfect little harlequin, gray, black, and white, and scarlet red in spots and dashes.

What was it? Song and bird were quite unknown. As the torrent of music still poured out, my attention was diverted by a movement near the ground, and there, hopping about on the bare bushes, was a bird of flame! Him I knew in a moment! The cardinal bird. Beside him hopped his mate, soberly grayish save for her beak, which was a glowing bit of pink coral. All this time the rills of melody came rippling down from the minstrel on the upper twigs, and only the falling night warned me away. The songster proved to be the English goldfinch which has become domesticated, and, as well as starling and cardinal, passes the winters in the park. Do our city bird-students appreciate the advantages of the parks belonging to every city the country over?

The unfailing courtesy of the Japanese is proverbial. There is at Atlantic City, New Jersey, a little tea-garden laid out as such an establishment would be in far-off Japan. It was open last March, and the Japanese, shivering in the stiff Atlantic breezes, were doing a slender business. Passing out I caught sight of some small gray objects dangling on a clump of bushes.

To my eager "May I?" assent was given, and I proceeded to denude the bushes. Seventeen of the bag-worm cases were captured. I hoped that the bushes, like the Japanese, were imported and that I should rear some tropical insects. But my find proved to be the ordinary bag-worm so well known in the south and west. They are very entertaining insects to observe. From the moment the eggs hatch, the young



BAG-WORM CASES.

make feverish efforts to get material for bags, and under your eyes will build them of paper, worsted, straw or anything you supply. The difference between male and female, their habits, the efforts of the poor imprisoned female to get carried about, shows a wonderful instinct. In the sketch observe that on a privet twig a bag is thatched with arbor-vitæ and consider the amount of traveling done by one poor worm in search of material.



NURSE.

MILK CARRIER.

PEDLER.

BROOM-SELLER.

TYPES OF RUSSIAN WOMEN.

RUSSIAN WOMEN. I.

BY ISABEL F. HAPGOOD.



IF one may judge of the Russian woman from the general trend of comment by admiring but awe-struck foreigners, that remarkable person is the Egyptian Sphinx brought down to date, and garnished *à la Parisienne*. In short, a sort of exaggerated *Circé* and a stick of dynamite combined; for she is fast and fascinating, beautiful and devout, an atheist and a "mind," faithful and treacherous, a giddy-pated, uneducated flirt, and a strong-minded, clever, revolutionary plotter. I am in doubt as to whether such a composite concentration of qualities could be found even in the most versatile woman of Young America, where the electric impetus of the physical and other atmospheres is much more strenuous than it is in Russia. But every quality named, and many more, can be found in both sets of women. The Russian woman, in addition, is often compelled to manage a great estate in the country during her husband's almost permanent absence in the service of the state; she must often act as physician to the peasants for many miles around, and to her own family, even in serious emergencies at times. Between such duties, the care of her household and children, schools and philanthropic enterprises both in town and country, the Russian woman has her extremely capable hands quite full. Some of the most devoted family circles I have ever seen were in Russia. The very best strawberry preserves I have ever

eaten were made by a princess, who never allowed anyone to prepare such things for the family but herself. The American women certainly excel the Russian women in average beauty, in tasteful dress, in style. Beauty is rarer among Russian women (not among the men) than in America, while taste in costume and style are hardly to be met with outside of court circles, the very wealthy merchants' families who are not conservative, and a few members of the educated classes. Russian men of all classes, and Russian women of most classes, save the peasants, have charming natural manners. On the whole, Russian and American women can be fairly matched, class for class, except



PEASANTS DRINKING TEA.

in the case of the peasant class, which exists in the United States only in the form of



COSTUME OF PEASANTS OF SOUTHEASTERN
VOLGA REGION.



COSTUME OF MARYA PAVLOVNA, WIFE OF GRAND
DUKE VLADIMIR.

recently imported raw material for future "Americans."

The peasant class of women—the most important class in the nation as to numbers, present physical powers and undeveloped mental powers—is well represented by the group engaged in drinking tea. Their garments are of the "fashionable" type, according to the standard of these toilers in home and field; for alas! the beautiful and picturesque old costumes are "out of style" nowadays almost everywhere in Russia. In some remote districts, however, the grandmother to the court garb is still to be found. Catherine II. instituted the modification of the peasant costume, and of that worn by the court during the reigns of the old tsars of Moscow: and that costume is still used. The most magnificent examples are to be seen on the empress and grand duchesses, which I cannot better illustrate than by the portrait of Marya Pavlovna, wife of the Grand Duke Vladimir, whose sables will appeal to every woman's heart.

Between these two sorts of lilies of the field, at the opposite poles of the social scale—those who literally make the fields to blossom by their labor and the home to thrive by their care; and those who are as glorious in raiment as both Solomon and the Queen of Sheba—come the women who enlist our special sympathies by their efforts for the welfare of their sex and of mankind in general. There is no woman's suffrage question upon which to expend nervous vital-

ity, in a land which announces frankly in its proverb: "Woman's hair is long but her wits are short"—which some other lands are sufficiently polite to think, only. So feminine effort is directed into other channels. Many a woman, in court circles and the merchant class, has orphanages, hospitals on her estates, or some sort of practical charity to which she devotes much time, labor, and money. Even the peasant women, poor, hard-working as they are, accomplish marvels in the same line. In one of the great manufacturing towns on the Volga, there is a really remarkable set of hospitals, orphanages, and similar institutions, which were originated and are managed exclusively by workingwomen in the factories.

In Russia, as in other lands, the great majority of earnest men and women who roll



MME. ELIZAVETA BÖHM.

forward the wheel of progress, belong to the middle class. They are members of the lesser hereditary gentry, the daughters of

priests, or of professors and scientific men, who, very likely, are the sons of priests — women whom Fate has not lavishly dowered with worldly goods. These are the women who have created Russia's fine record in the direction of woman's education, and the like.

Before I speak of this very extensive subject in the chapter to follow, let me mention those who have distinguished themselves in art and allied industries. It is difficult, of course, to settle the question of precedence. Princess Marie Shakhovskoy, a pupil of the famous sculptor Antokolsky, and herself a frequent exhibitor, had charge of the Cottage Industries at the Chicago Exposition. The wares displayed there, and at the shop which she afterwards founded in New York, bore witness to the beneficent efforts of herself and other women to develop the useful and ornamental handicrafts which the peasant women exercise during the long winter months. But the woman sculptor who is best known abroad, and who gives vast promise for the future, is Teresa Feodorovna Rees of Moscow, the pupil of Professor E. Hellmer of Vienna. Her portrait busts are very strong and original. Among them is that of Mark Twain. In 1898 she won the greatest distinction for an artist — the Karl Ludwig gold medal — for a statue of "Lucifer," on the base of which are inscribed the words: "Art thou happy, thou image of God?" Evidently, he is not.

Among the women artists best known are the late Mme. Pelagaya P. Couriard, Mme. Elizaveta Böhm, Baroness Elena K. Wrangel, and Baroness Marya I. von der Palen, all true Russians despite their foreign names.

Mme. Couriard founded the Ladies' First Artistic Circle in St. Petersburg (though

some of the grand duchesses are often members. With the proceeds of its annual exhibition and sales it aids needy artists, their wives and children, in practical ways. Mme. Couriard herself was an associate of the Imperial Academy of Fine Arts, and held successful exhibitions in many cities of the continent,



TERESA FEODOROVNA REES MODELING A BUST OF MARK TWAIN.

as well as at home. Baronesses Wrangel and Palen are also associates (and were members of the Ladies' Circle), who exhibit yearly with the Imperial Academy, and also with the independent Perambulatory Exhibition, their work being chiefly water-colors.

Mme. Elizaveta Böhm is known in America, as well as most European lands, by her specialties — silhouettes and children in water-colors, particularly little ones in the fantastic costumes of Old Russia. In addition to many diplomas, she has received ten medals, among them four from the Chicago Exposition — for water-colors, for an edition of her silhouette books, for fans, and for decoration on crystal in the old Russian style. She has sent me a charmingly characteristic portrait, which shows her at work with a group of village children. The late Elena Polyenoff was very well known in Russia for her illustrations, especially of Russian fairy tales, and for her designs for decorative woodwork and kindred objects.

At the head of intelligent promoters of domestic industries stands Mme. Sophie Davydoff, much better known than Princess Shakhovskoy, partly on account of her magnificent and authoritative volume published by imperial command on "Russian Laces and Lace-makers." She traveled all over Russia, collecting and photographing her material, and inspecting also the ancient rugs, of beautiful patterns and splendid texture, woven by the serfs before the emancipation. That industry she revived after first founding in



THE GREENHOUSE AND PUPILS AT BARONESS A. I. BUDBERG'S INSTITUTE.

women's clubs are frowned upon by the government), to which admission is secured by social standing as well as artistic talent, as

St. Petersburg the "Mary School of Lace-making," under the patronage of the Empress-Dowager Marya Feodorovna. At



MME. SOPHIE DAVYDOFF.

that school a score of little peasant girls, acquainted almost from infancy with the technique of rude lace-weaving, are lodged, fed, instructed in the elementary branches of learning, drawing, and designing, for the space of two years. At the end of that time they are entrusted with the weaving of



NADEZHDA S. VASILIEFF.

gold lace sown with seed pearls, for empresses and queens; and they are expected to impart their improved methods and patterns to the women of their districts on their return home, as sole recompense. Mme. Davydoff's prominence and success in her branch of art industries may be judged from the fact that she has been sent by the government to France, Bokhara, and Central Asia on special missions; also, in 1892, with the aid of the

Ministry of Imperial Domains, she established organized woman's work in the districts of the Voronezh government, which had been most devastated by the great famine, opening schools for weaving, lace-making and embroidery in many places. She is chairman of the "Society for Encouraging the Training of Women in Handicrafts," at St. Petersburg. Such thoroughly practical and widely-beneficent activity merits extended notice.

Equally beneficent, and covering a range fully as great, is the work in which Baroness A. I. Budberg has been interested for years: the training of women of all classes in agricultural economy. After she had carried on a school for this training, on her own estate, at her own expense for years, the government officially recognized it, and last summer established an Agricultural School for Women, on the same lines, near Moscow, at a place where an Agricultural and Horticultural Institute for men has long existed—sometimes with American gardeners, by the way.

Other women have had schools, but the Baroness Budberg's, the one most frequently mentioned, may serve as an example of private enterprise working out a whole system which the authorities have considered worthy of adoption. Baroness Budberg's school has two courses: one for the "uneducated" class, which includes an elementary education in the "three R's," the other for the "educated" class, which is even more extensive than the remarkably broad one provided in the first instance. And what an education it is! For about one hundred dollars a year board and tuition are furnished, and the pupil is instructed in a list of practical branches which is too long to reproduce here. I may mention, how-



MARYA G. SAVIN.

ever, dairy work and the preparation of a dozen or more sorts of cheese; the care of cattle, poultry, and bees; horticulture, agriculture, weaving, spinning, preserve-making, starch, soap and candle-making, setting the table for various occasions, care of linen, laundrywork, bookkeeping, hygiene, first aid to the wounded, care of the sick, cut-

ting up of meat, smoking and salting meats, sausage-making, confectionery and pastry. To this list, for the educated class — the mistresses of the manor of whom I have already spoken — are added arboriculture, zoölogy, chemistry, mineralogy, drawing, political economy, knowledge of machinery (a vastly important item on a big estate), the veterinary surgeon's art, with some practical instruction in the care of fruit trees. What finally induced the government to adopt the idea of these enterprising women was that the minister of agriculture was besieged with letters from estate owners asking for women with such training.

The opera and the stage have long had first-class artists, as is to be expected from so musical and emotional a race as the Russians. The famous Mme. Marya G. Savin recently celebrated the twenty-fifth anniversary of a career on the stage of the Imperial Theater which has won for her the title of "the Russian Sarah Bernhardt." Like Mme. Bernhardt, she preserves her wonderful youthfulness of appearance. She has created an astonishing number of parts, comic, tragic, and dramatic, being especially noted for her characters in Ostrovsky's plays drawn from the life of the conservative old merchant class, and national subjects. She even won applause on the Berlin stage, though she played a German drama in Russian, incomprehensible to the audience.

Another excellent artist, Nadezhda S. Vasilieff, the daughter of capital actors, retired not long ago from the stage of the Imperial Theater after a very successful career of over twenty years. She was also entrusted with the important work of reading plays, and of teaching in the Imperial Theatrical School.

At the Imperial Opera, Mme. Eugenie Konstantinovna Mravin has delighted the public with her beauty, dramatic talent, and crystal-clear soprano voice for fourteen years, and has had great success in England, France, Germany, and

of Mme. Marya Alexandrovna Slavin, who has graced the stage of the Imperial Opera for over twenty years; in such rôles



MME. PELAGAYA P. COURIARD.

as "Carmen," "Amneris" (in "Aida"), and the like, while Mme. Marya Danilovna Kamensky sings mezzo-soprano and contralto parts in over thirty operas. All

these women are generally spoken of by their surnames, in the feminine form, which most Russian surnames are susceptible of taking, and which is not disrespectful: Savina, Mravina, Slavina, Kamenskaya, etc. I may remark that the operatic stage is the only career for singers in Russia, as musical societies



A LAY SISTER.



A. N. TOLIVYEROFF-PYESHKOFF.

Belgium. Her repertory of Russian and Italian operas is very large. So is that

are very few, and therefore concerts do not offer a livelihood. Moreover, as the music in churches is performed by choirs of men and boys (with no instrumental accom-

paniment), that does not offer an opening to women; while the fact that the ecclesiastical



FINNISH WOMAN
IN ST. PETERSBURG.

music—entirely different from western church music in every way—indulges in no solos,—the opportunities for men (except in a certain limited line) are almost as unpromising. There have been and still are many women writers in Russia; but none of them has risen to the first rank; although Mme. Marco Vovtchok (pseudonym), wrote tales in Little Russian which the great Turgenev considered it worth his while to translate into Great Russian for the benefit of his compatriots. Women do not play as prominent a part in newspaper work as they do in America; fashion journals are rare. Mme. A. N. Tolivyeroff-Pyeshkoff is one of the women who has made a profession of literature, and

has written, for nearly thirty years, in all the leading journals and monthlies. Her special talent has been in the line of stories for children, and she long acted as manager of a journal for children called *The Toy*. Perhaps the most learned among women writers is Anna Mikhailovna Evreinoff, whose works on ancient customary law, philological questions and the like are well known. For five years she was the proprietor and editor of a first-class monthly magazine founded by herself, the *Northern Messenger*. She failed in this undertaking, through lack of experience.

Quite recently, against competent advice, she came to America in the hope of retrieving her fortunes, and of earning enough money by lecturing on her specialties to publish another weighty book. But she found few auditors, and carried back to Russia a decidedly unfavorable impression as to the tastes and education of American women.

(To be continued.)



WOMAN OF A FINNISH TRIBE
ON THE VOLGA.

THE STORY OF A MICHIGAN FARM.

BY ANDREW BURNS CHALMERS.



LESS than half a century ago, a sturdy Scotchman, who was born in Perthshire, and his wife, who was born in Enniskillen, North Ireland, moved with their three small children, two boys and a girl, into the wilds of central Michigan. They settled on pine land, five miles from the nearest village and railroad station. They bought, for a pittance, forty acres of sandy soil from which the timber had been removed. They took shelter in a friend's log house until the father could put up his own rude log cabin. This cabin had only one room, and but one door. It was covered with clapboards, riven with frow and mallet from the oak. The only bed had but one leg, but was more firm than beds with four legs. It was constructed in the corner of the room, by boring two large

auger holes in the logs, into which the pieces forming the end and side of the bed were placed. These pieces, coming together at right angles, needed a perpendicular support from the floor to complete the frame of the bed. This bed could not be moved out for sweeping purposes. It was a stationary bed, and would move neither laterally nor perpendicularly, for it had no springs. When the father had improvised a table, some stools, and a trundle bed for the children, the home was furnished.

Not an acre of the forty was cleared for cultivation. There was not a horse, cow, sheep, pig, or chicken owned by the family. The first months were spent in cutting shingle bolts from the poor pine left by the lumbermen. When the shingles were made by hand, an ox team was hired to haul them five miles or more to market, and get in return

a sack of coarse flour or corn meal with which to feed the ever increasing family.

In the spring the father put on spiked boots, took a peavey, and "run logs" down Duke creek and Rouge river. In the summer the mother picked redberries and blackberries in the pine slashings of the neighborhood, carried them five miles to the village, and sold them, or exchanged them for sugar or calico. One day she arose with the dawn, did the family washing before mid-forenoon, and picked with the uncertain aid of the older children, who bore on their unprotected feet and legs the marks of their service among the briars of the blackberry patch, a ten-quart pail of berries before she prepared the midday meal. After dinner she left the older children in charge of the younger, carried the pail of berries to town, and sold them for sufficient to buy an old-fashioned iron tea-kettle, which she carried all the weary miles home, where she arrived with the dying day. That night she slept well on the one-legged bed, caring not that it had no springs; for work and weariness brought refreshing sleep.

A new moral force and an intellectual quickening came with this family into the township. Edward Denison had not yet left Oxford to become the father of the modern college social settlement work. He had not yet lived and died among the poor and vicious of the Whitechapel district of London, when this family with higher ideals came among the needy in mind and heart on these sandy plains. They did not come to consciously apply the social settlement idea to the rural community. They came to the woods of Michigan to make a home in which to rear and educate their children. It was farthest from their thought that they were to make the social center for the neighborhood life. They did not announce to their new friends and neighbors that they had come to make a model home, and rear a model family, so

that the homes and children of the community might be saved by imitation. They came to cast their family life into that community life, not for a transient stay, but for all the brooding years of the life of the family, until the children had flown to work and ways far removed from the old home.

When word was passed for miles around, "Come to neighbor John Black's logging-bee on Saturday afternoon," the ox teams and "all hands" from all the country round would come with hand-spikes strong, and, dividing themselves into crews, would leave ten acres of log heaps ready for the burning before the call for supper, with the peaceful pipe on the part of the men, and the giddy games on the part of the young, for dessert. The logging-bee was the first social center of the community. The wives and children always came to help prepare and eat the evening meal, and to enjoy the social pleasure, with music and dancing after candle light, in the low log house.

The Scotchman, with his family, always went to these gatherings, working, eating, and smoking with his neighbors. The whiskey jug was the only part of the fellowship which he refused, and through his influence cold spring water soon took its place.

It was at one of these social gatherings, while the women were lingering long over the tea-cups, and the boys and girls were playing hide and seek in the gathering dusk, that he suggested to the men as they sat smoking the pipe of friendship, that the children, whose voices could be heard calling and laughing on every hand, should have the privileges of a school. He said that steps should be taken at once to have a schoolhouse built on the north and south road, at the section line, where the new cross-road would be put through; and the schoolhouse was built, for all the men needed was a suggestion, they, too, feeling the importance of an education.



"THE OLD LOG HOUSE ON THE HILL."



"THE HALL THAT BECAME A CHURCH."

The man who molded the community mind thought they should have a frame rather than a log schoolhouse, as a "more stately mansion" for the mind culture of the community, and the neighbors thought so too; and it was built. This man, who had gone to school in Perth, Scotland, was always on the district school board, always favored a longer term, and always moved for paying higher salaries to teachers. He voted for a better schoolhouse, and the longest possible terms, and the highest salaries to teachers, after his children were all graduates of the country school, and when he paid more taxes than any other man in the district.

Within a few years from the time the family had settled here, they were able to build a larger and better log house, one with two rooms and two doors, with shingles on the roof, and with a low upstairs room, where some of the older children might sleep.

The children came two or three years apart, until there were ten. The oldest, a baby boy, had been left asleep over the sea, and the youngest, a boy, stayed a few days, and then was taken to the little country burying-ground, near the farm, and was put to bed beside his grandmother, his father's mother, who had fallen asleep in the new world, far from the land where she loved, and labored, and lost. The other eight children, four boys and four girls, lived, and are living today. The five born on the Michigan farm were born in the old or in the new log house. All the children went to the district school as many months in the year as the school funds would allow. The older boys attended the winter term of four months, and worked on the farm in the summer. Many were the sacrifices made by that father and mother, that those eight children might have clothes and books for school. Some of the neighbors thought best to keep their children from school for trivial reasons. In this family, an education was important.

The servant girl question did not trouble that mother. She did all her work, washing and ironing included. She made every garment that was worn by that family of ten. She made the caps, and knit the stockings and mittens—even spun the yarn from the wool that the father had shorn from the sheep in the spring, and had taken to the carding mill. Whenever she rested, she would knit; and whenever she was walking back and forth beside the spinning-wheel, she would sing. While the children slept at night, she would sew, and often sew and bake at the same time, while the father sat

and read for hours during the long winter evenings in the log house. Sometimes the older children were permitted to sit up and listen to the father's reading, and so they early learned to love the best literature.

As the farms became cleared, and the logging-bee ceased to be a gathering place, this father and mother felt the need of a social center for the community life. There was no sympathy with the church in the neighborhood. Lumbermen and river men were still quite a factor in the life of the district. Besides this lack of sympathy on the part of the community, there was a lack of denominational unity in this family, for the father was a Scotch Presbyterian, and the mother was a Roman Catholic.

This external difference was not allowed to disturb the essential religious unity of the family life. The children knew nothing of this denominational difference. They knew that they were taught to pray every night before going to bed, and were told the Bible stories, and were led to live the unselfish life. The difference in religious faith made no mar in the religious practise of the family. When the father prayed at meals, or at bedtime, the children knew not that it was a Presbyterian prayer; and when the mother had the little ones kneel beside her and offer their childish prayers, closing with, "Now I lay me down to sleep," they never knew that it was a Roman Catholic who taught them, for she was their mother.

Thus it came that they formed in their own home a temperance society for the community, in the form of a lodge of the Independent Order of Good Templars. This became the church of the community. The father gathered the men of the neighborhood together, and they built beside the schoolhouse a fine frame building—the best building of any kind for miles around—and this came to be the social, intellectual, and moral center of the township life. The father felt that the influence of such an organization would meet the needs of the community as well as would a church. He had once been under the influence of drink, before he came to Michigan, and had afterward pledged his Scotch word to his wife, over the cradle of their baby boy, that he would never again take intoxicants in any form as a beverage,—and his word was never broken.

This hall became the meeting-place of the neighbors for miles around, as they came at least once a week, for over a quarter of a century. The fathers and mothers and the young men and maidens were there. The

first place the babies were taken was to this gathering. It became the undenominational church and the literary club of all the country side. The boys and girls looked anxiously to their twelfth year, when they could become full members of this society. They were placed in office, they worked on committees, they learned how to write a report. There they learned how to sing; they heard the Bible read; they heard the chaplain—usually the Scotchman—pray; they learned parliamentary rules, and how to preside over a deliberative body; they took sides in debate, and made their first effort at amateur theatricals. The young ladies were called on for recitations, and the young men for impromptu “speeches for the good of the order.” At intermission the young people met socially, and played games, with the fathers and mothers entering into the play or watching the boys and girls.

The organizer of this society formed a moot-court, and was elected judge; the bright young men were called as lawyers; and those less promising sat as jurors, or acted as court officers. The people would drive in from ten miles distant, and pack the hall, to hear these mock trials and to enjoy the fun. There are men in congress today who trace their inspiration back to that hall and those evenings of legal practise; there are men, not a few, who are preaching in pulpits of wide influence, east and west, who follow back the stream of advancement to the spring of intellectual and spiritual refreshment in that quiet place. There have been teachers by the score, who might never have entered the schoolroom, if that intellectual center had not been established. There are men and women by the hundreds whose lives are purer and truer because of the influence of this country neighborhood guild.

It became the custom of the place to meet at the hall for the Saturday half-holiday—and that was before the government adopted this rule. In the evening there was the regular weekly meeting, and this meeting was never omitted, winter or summer, for decade after decade.

The oldest of the eight children in this family was bent on an education. He would sit up in the loft of the log house, and by the light of a tallow candle would study late into the night, while other boys slept. When he had completed the work of the district school he walked five miles every morning to the village high school, walking back in the evening, caring little that the village lads and lasses joked of his home-

made clothes and country ways. They do not do this now, for he has since been professor in a great university, and president of a large educational institution, with hundreds of students sitting at his feet.

The second son left the district school at the age of sixteen, and having passed the teacher's examination taught a winter term of country school, receiving twenty dollars a month and “boarded round.” Today he is being paid twenty dollars a day to superintend a great city system, with nearly one thousand teachers under his guidance.

These boys went to high school, and did chores and took care of furnaces and school-houses to earn their living; they boarded themselves, and lived on scant and not over-rich rations; they worked in the lumber woods; they “drove logs” and were “beat bosses” on the river in the spring; they cradled and raked and bound wheat in the harvest time to get money to complete their education. They would teach a year, and then go to school a year. They would carry their Latin and Greek books with them to the fields on the Michigan farm, and study when the horses rested. They plowed around pine roots, with Greek roots in their minds, and when the plow struck a hidden stone and the handle suddenly sought their sides, they would find a Latin phrase on their lips when others might have used poor English.

The father could not help these children to the financial means for an education; he gave them the inspiration, and they helped themselves, the older ones loaning and giving money to the younger ones, until the eight had diplomas, and five of them college and university degrees, two of them taking postgraduate courses in German or Scottish universities. They all were teachers at some point in their advancement.

When the family was well grown, there came a Michigan home missionary pastor who preached the Gospel in the common hall of the community. He was of another denomination than either the father or mother favored, but he preached what they had been practising all the years, and the wife said, “For the children's sake, we should unite with the church,” and the little Irish Roman Catholic mother leading, the big Scotch Presbyterian father following, they made confession of their faith in Him who had been their Friend and Helper through all the years.

The old hall is still the center of the community life, but they call it a church now. The logging-bee and the fraternal society

led to the church. That father and mother saw every child of theirs first a member of the old fraternal society, and afterwards the family of ten were members of the church which evolved from it. Two of the boys became preachers, and now minister to the spiritual needs of large city parishes.

There was a wedding once in that little house on the hill, when the oldest daughter, who had come as a baby with the family to their new home, was given in marriage, the summer after she graduated, to a neighboring farmer's son who had just completed his college course.

When the children were all grown and gone away, the father and mother must go — so the children said — to live with the oldest

son, in a far-away city. But the father did not want to go, and if that same year he was laid to rest beside his mother and baby boy, under the sighing pines of the little country burying-ground, no one needs to know where. Not many will make pilgrimages to his unmarked grave; for he was unknown beyond the quiet neighborhood where he modestly lived and peacefully died.

If you could find that little woman who came with him from Enniskillen, Ireland, she would not tell you all the toils, and tears, and trials of those sacred days of long ago, for she was heard to say, long since and often, "The happiest days of my life were when I had *him* and my children, and lived in the little log house on the hill on the Michigan farm."

TRUSTS AND INTERNATIONALISM.

BY T. N. CARVER.

(Assistant Professor of Economics in Harvard University.)



WE have been frequently told during the last few years that trusts are the natural outgrowth of industrial conditions. In so far as this statement means anything, it must mean that there are certain industries in which the advantages of large-scale production are so great, and where, in consequence, the smaller establishments must so certainly and so continually fail in competition with the larger, that in course of time these industries must of necessity be concentrated in a very small number of very large surviving establishments. The owners of these surviving establishments then agree to put a stop to the process by suspending competition. If this be the true explanation of the origin of trusts, they are natural products in that they do not owe their existence to, and could not have been prevented by, any legislative device. On the contrary, they were as far beyond legislative control as the precession of the equinoxes.

That in certain industries the advantages of large-scale production are very great, needs no proof. The only question is: Where is the limit beyond which further enlargement ceases to be advantageous? If in any industry that limit is reached long before the number of competitors is reduced to a few, a trust would be unnatural if not impossible. In agriculture, for example, a large farm may have certain advantages over a small farm, but the limit beyond which large-scale farming cannot be profitably carried is soon reached. It would therefore

be impossible for larger farmers to continue crowding out the smaller ones until the whole market for agricultural products could be supplied from a few enormous farms. For this reason an agricultural trust would be an impossibility.

On the other hand, there are industries in which large-scale production can be carried much further than in agriculture. In some it seems almost as though there were no limit at all to the profitable enlargement of individual plants. At any rate this limit has, in some cases, not been reached until the whole market has come to be supplied by a comparatively small number of large establishments. If the industry in question happens to supply an article which is not used in large quantities, as, for example, skewers for butchers' use, or machinery for making shoemakers' lasts, it may easily be concentrated in a few establishments which control the output, and are, to all intents and purposes, a trust. But such a trust is not considered dangerous, does not attract public attention, and, in fact, is not usually called a trust at all. But when the industry in question supplies an article which is used generally and in large quantities, its concentration in a few large establishments is a matter of greater public concern. The mere bigness of the combination attracts popular attention and inspires fear.

But the mere concentration of an industry in a few large establishments does not constitute a trust, it only creates conditions favorable to the formation of a trust. The

trust is formed only when some sort of a compact is entered into by the surviving competitors whereby competition among themselves is suspended. In its original form it was a mere agreement relating to prices and output. It has passed through several stages until finally the typical trust is a single huge corporation which has absorbed a number of competing corporations. Thus, in its original form at least, the trust was not a form of concentration, but a means of preventing still further concentration. There is always the probability that the same conditions which destroyed a large number of small competitors, leaving only a few large ones in the field, would continue in operation until all but one should succumb, leaving only a single surviving concern in complete and absolute possession of the field. In order to suspend these conditions, and to prevent this form of concentration, the compact is entered into. It is a sort of disarmament, or a measure for preserving the balance of power.

From many sources has come the suggestion that we are soon to have international trusts. It is true that the market for many products has become world-wide. It might therefore seem that the same conditions that have produced trusts on a national scale would, sooner or later, produce trusts on an international scale. But there are serious difficulties in the way. In the first place, the manufacturer does not, except in a few cases, feel the necessity of a suspension of international competition as keenly as he does the necessity of a suspension of competition among home producers. The home producers still have considerable advantages in their own market over the foreign competitor. In the next place, the difficulties are very considerable in the way of maintaining an agreement and preserving discipline among a number of producers of different nationalities, speaking different languages, living under different political and legal systems, and having different business methods and traditions.

There is another phase of the trust movement which seems likely to be reached before the international phase. There are signs of a coming struggle between the trusts and the labor unions. Such a struggle can have only one of two results. One party must succumb, leaving the other in complete mastery of the situation, or an agreement must be reached to suspend hostilities under a *modus vivendi*. The latter is the more probable. In England, where trusts

have not been organized on such a stupendous scale as in America, they have nevertheless reached a more advanced stage of development. This is found in a movement which is practically a combination of the trust and the labor union.¹ Under this combination the manufacturers agree not to sell below cost of production, to employ none but union laborers, and to maintain wages. In return, the labor unions agree not to work for any manufacturer outside the combination, nor for any one who violates any rule of the combination. Some such form as this seems likely to be the last stage of combination which we shall see for some time to come.

There are some very interesting analogies between the stage of economic development which produced the trust, and that stage of political development through which the world is now passing. It is not improbable that they are something more than analogies. As already suggested, the suspension of competition among a few large competitors in the industrial field bears a very close resemblance to the proposals for disarmament in the field of international politics. The sheer dread of a struggle between any of the great military powers is enough to create a very general desire for some other means of settling international disputes. Similarly, the sheer dread of a life and death struggle among a few huge competitors in the industrial field, involving the loss of millions, is enough to inspire all those directly concerned with a desire for a peaceable settlement.

It may be objected here that the disarmament or the suspension of hostilities among the members of the trust is accompanied by increased hostility toward small competitors remaining outside the trust. But it must not be overlooked that there have been few periods since modern history began when the weaker nations were so circumscribed, when their very existence hung by so slender a thread, as in these days of peace congresses and proposals for disarmament. This is more than a coincidence. The fact that the sentiment against war is so strong among the great powers, renders war among them much more improbable than it would otherwise be. For this reason, any one of them having designs on some weaker nation feels freer to carry out those designs than it otherwise would. It is less likely to stir up armed opposition on the part of another great power, and it can therefore go a little farther in its aggressions against the weaker

¹ See "The New Trades Combination Movement," by E. J. Smith (London, 1899).

nations than it would otherwise dare to go. If France, Germany, or Russia were as ready to go to war with England as they once were, England would scarcely dare to commit the outrage she is now committing against the Transvaal. For a similar reason the United States would find it inexpedient to pursue her present Philippine policy. In the final disposition of China it would probably be better for her if the powers were a little less united. A little wholesome fear of the wrath of civilized nations would have done something to check the barbaric atrocities of the European troops in China. Spain, not being a great power, has learned that a cruel and inhuman method of suppressing insurrection may bring heavy penalties. But today at least two of the "world powers," being placed in similar positions, are seriously considering whether it is not necessary to adopt Spain's identical policy, under a different name.

Cheap transportation and efficient means for the transmission of intelligence are the conditions which, more than any others, have made possible the rapid concentration of industry. Adam Smith long ago pointed out that the division of labor is limited by the extent of the market. The advantages of large-scale production depend mainly on the better opportunity it gives for the minute division of labor. Before the days of cheap transportation, markets were necessarily local, or restricted in area. Those who produced for each local market had to be near at hand, where they were at a great advantage over those working at a distance. Manifestly there could then have been no such concentration of industries as we have seen in recent years. But with the coming of cheap transportation and the rapid transmission of intelligence came also a widening of markets. The local producer no longer had so great an advantage over distant competitors. A large producer half-way across the continent might invade the market of the local producer and crowd him out. Thus have cheap transportation and rapid transmission of intelligence given to large-scale production its opportunity to show its superiority.

In a similar manner has the concentration of political power, especially in the field of international politics, been favored by better means of communication. Without these means it is difficult to fuse large masses of people in a common feeling of nationality and to administer government over a wide extent of territory. Under such conditions small states are the rule. The Romans, wise in their generation, made the construction of their magnificent system of roads a part of their imperial policy. Present means of communication make possible empires larger than the Romans ever dreamed of. When the problem is solved of administering government over a wide territory, and of maintaining the spirit of nationality in a large mass of people, the advantage in international rivalry is with the larger state. Hence there is and will continue to be a tendency for the control of international affairs to pass more and more into the hands of a few great powers.

Moreover, as has already been pointed out, the formation of an agreement whereby competition was suspended among a few gigantic producers in certain industries was for the purpose of preventing still further concentration. It is equally true that in the field of international politics general disarmament, together with the doctrine of the balance of power, can alone prevent the realization of Charlemagne's or Napoleon's dream of a world empire. But this agreement to suspend industrial competition has proved incapable of preventing still further concentration. As stated above, that stage in the development of trusts has already been reached wherein a number of independent corporations are absorbed by a single gigantic corporation. But there has been a change in the method of concentration. Instead of a struggle for existence in which the weaker competitors are killed off or driven out of business, there has been substituted the process of peaceable absorption. It remains to be seen whether international disarmament will successfully inaugurate the process of "benevolent assimilation" as a substitute for the process of military conquest.



The RIVALRY of NATIONS

WORLD POLITICS OF TODAY

By *Edwin A. Start*

CHAPTER XX.

THE EXPLOITATION OF AFRICA.

*Required Reading
for the Chautau-
qua Literary and
Scientific Circle.*



THE most ancient of known civilizations was established in north-eastern Africa. In the valley of the Nile the old Egyptians lighted the torch that more aggressive races were to take up and pass along down the centuries. The coast countries of northern Africa, too, were intimately associated with the successive acts in the great Mediterranean drama, which involved the life and death struggle of opposing types of institutions and society, and finally of two great religions. But although isolated explorers and traders from the earliest times had discovered the existence of a great continental *hinterland* at the south, deserts of unknown extent barred the way to the southward and the interests of antiquity and of the middle ages centered about the Mediterranean. The coasts and interior of Africa did not offer a smiling face to civilized man. Berber, Semite, and Aryan ranged along its northern edge; but its deserts, its tropical jungles, its great interior highlands, and the more hospitable but wholly unknown southern extremity, were left to the dusky peoples who are the typical native Africans. Therefore, in this great continent, while the structure of western civilization was being reared elsewhere, races of undoubted antiquity, unknown by the civilized world, had their tribal societies, their wars, and conquests,—indeed, carried on in their own primitive ways the struggle for existence, and little else.

*Why Africa was so
early and so little
known.*

The first practical addition to European knowledge of Africa came with the Portuguese attempts in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries to find the eastward route to the Indies, when the daring explorers, trained and

[Chapters I.-IV. appeared in the October issue. The first was an introductory discussion of the significance of the present age, the expansion of the nations, the industrial revolution, the growth of democracy, and the world problems resulting from the interplay of these elements. Chapter II. explained the politics of Europe in the middle of the century, as turning upon the ideas of nationality and the revolutionary democracy; with the Eastern question as shaped in the Crimean war. In Chapters III. and IV. the development of England and France respectively in the last half century were traced, with especial reference to the rise of English democracy and the growth of republican government in France.

*Summary of Pre-
ceding Chapters.*

[Chapters V.-VIII. in the November number considered in a similar way the other four great powers of Europe, Germany, Italy, Austria-Hungary, and Russia.

[Chapters IX.-XI. in the December number dealt with the question of the near East. Chapter IX. described the reopening of the Eastern question after 1871, explaining the relations of Russia and Turkey and the status of the Turkish empire and the Balkan and Danubian provinces. Chapter X. discussed the developments from 1871 to the Russo-Turkish war of 1877-78, the results of the war and the treaty of San Stefano, and Chapter XI. the resettlement of the Eastern question by the Congress of Berlin, the resulting conditions, and the effect upon Russian policy.

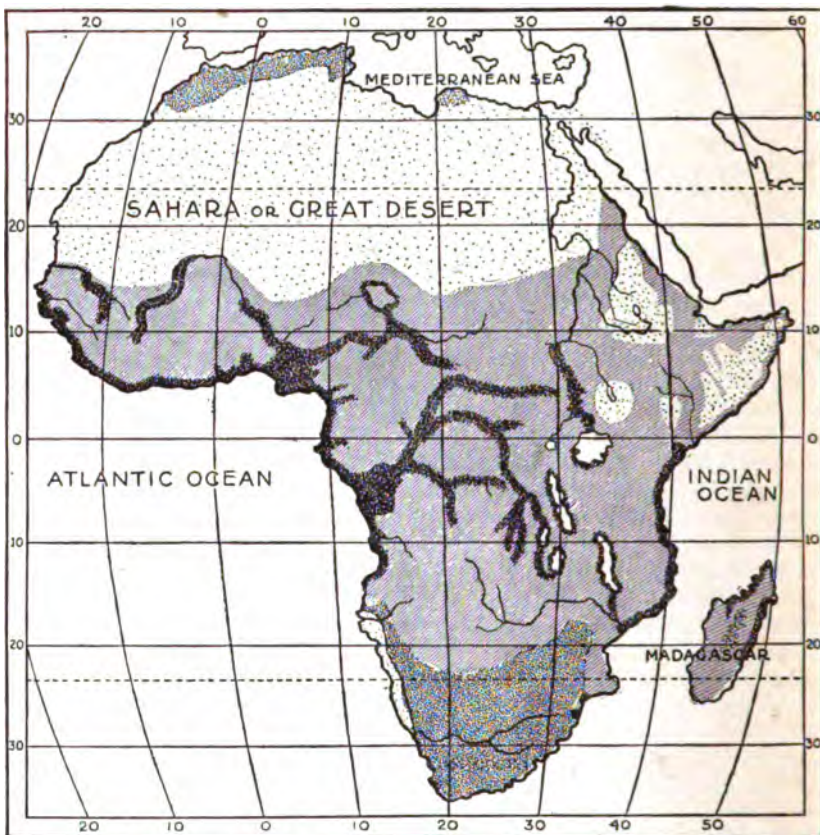
[In the January number Chapter XII. discussed the consequences of the Congress of Berlin in the Balkan peninsula; Chapter XIII. considered Egypt as a factor in the Eastern question, and the British control; Chapter XIV. was a general introduction to the subject of Colonial Expansion; and Chapter XV., on "Imperial England," began an examination of the characteristics, methods, and extent of the colonial activity of the different European powers.

[Chapters XVI.-XIX. in the February number continued the study of the expansion of the great nations begun in January, Chapter XVI. being a study of the growth of the British imperial idea in its spirit and manifestations. A chapter on German colonial policy showed the consistency and studied character of German colonial methods, and another dealt with French colonization in its chief aspects. The closing chapter was on Russian expansion.]

Early Portuguese
explorations.

inspired by Prince Henry the Navigator, pushed farther and farther down the west coast, and finally, rounding the Cape of Good Hope, explored the east coast and found the long-sought way to the Indies. The results of this work were Portuguese trading-posts at intervals on the east and west coasts of Africa, and the acquisition of some knowledge and much rumor in regard to the interior. But no traditions such as drew men to the golden East surrounded this land, then and always a dark continent. The wave-washed sands of its extended coast offered few inviting harbors;

COLONIZABILITY
OF AFRICA.



Key to Map.

[1. Now fully occupied or not wholly favorable climatically for Europeans. 2. Extremely unhealthy. 3. Unhealthy and uncolonizable, but productive. Where healthy white men can live for limited periods, carrying on plantations and trade. 4. Habitable by Europeans and subject to colonization.]

its lagoon-like river mouths were not attractive; its low, marshy, and unsalubrious coast lands repelled further acquaintance. Its rude inhabitants promised no rich rewards of commerce or spoils of conquest. Still, the two great incentives to discovery — traders' enterprise and missionary zeal — caused a steady though slow movement on the part of those European peoples that were at one time or another brought in contact with Africa, and when at the close of the last century that race that allows no land to remain unexplored, no mystery to be unsolved, had established itself in South Africa, irrevocable law decreed the complete and thorough exploitation of this least known of the great land masses of the earth.

Later African
explorations.

From the fourteenth century onward there is recorded a constant succession of more or less aimless African explorations, chiefly by the

Portuguese, though after the middle of the eighteenth century Englishmen were very active. In the list of African explorers Mungo Park is the first great name, though he was only one of many who laid down their lives in the endeavor to penetrate the unwholesome Niger country. English attention in Africa in the first half of the century was concentrated upon this part of the continent because of the aroused English interest in the suppression of the slave trade; but Sir Harry Johnston's comment on the Buxton expedition of 1841—that its aims, in addition to the establishment of a model farm on the Niger, “were nicely balanced between the spreading of Christian civilization and the suppression of the slave trade on the one hand, and the zealous pushing of Manchester goods on the other,” will apply in general to this work of opening paths into the Dark Continent. In 1850, with Dr. Henry Barth, a German in the English service, began the new line of modern scientific explorers, who worked with method and made marked additions to the world's knowledge of the African continent, its people, its fauna, and its flora. To this line belonged Livingstone, Stanley, Speke, Grant, Baker, Cameron, Schweinfurth, Johnston, and many others of lesser fame, but not less honorable service to civilization. By them the Niger, the Congo, and the Zambesi, the mountains and great lakes where are the sources of the Nile, the deserts, and interior and southern Africa, were explored. In a general way we may say that from 1788 to 1830 the chief work of African explorers was the exploitation of the Niger region and of the mysterious negro capital, Timbuctoo; from 1830 to 1850 attention was directed mainly to the Nile country and to South Africa; from 1850 to 1862 the problem was to bring into relation with each other northern and southern equatorial Africa, the countries of the Nile and the Zambesi, the Sudan and the Sahara; from 1862 until into the seventies attention was focused on the Congo; since that time scientific work has been addressed to filling the broad outline of knowledge acquired by the pioneers, while a new political problem has arisen in connection with the acquisition of territory and the colonization of tropical and sub-tropical Africa.

The English on the Niger.

Barth and the scientific explorers.

Periods of African exploitation.

For twenty years several European powers, among them three of the first rank, Great Britain, Germany, and France, have been engaged in parceling out territories aggregating hundreds of thousands of square miles and inhabited by tens of millions of people, chiefly of negro or negroid race. For the most part this has been done with singularly little friction, considering the magnitude of the problem. Perhaps in this very magnitude has been a safeguard for international relations, since the future of the continent has not been clear to the nations themselves until very recent developments have afforded means for a forecast. Furthermore, African questions have not yet come to rank with those of Europe, Asia, and America, which have been so much in evidence that they have drawn attention away from the movements within this continent, which is still the stronghold of savagery and barbarism. A third reason why serious international complications have not arisen from the African scramble is the vast areas which are here open to civilized occupancy. It has been possible for English, French, Germans, Portuguese, Italians, and Belgians to take all they could lay their hands upon and still not come into serious collision. This has been, but within ten years changes have taken place which have made Africa a factor in the international situation, although even now there is no immediate reason to suppose that African affairs will produce a conflict of nations. It is conceivable, however, that events might occur in Africa that would furnish the spark to fire a train that had been laid elsewhere.

The new political problem.

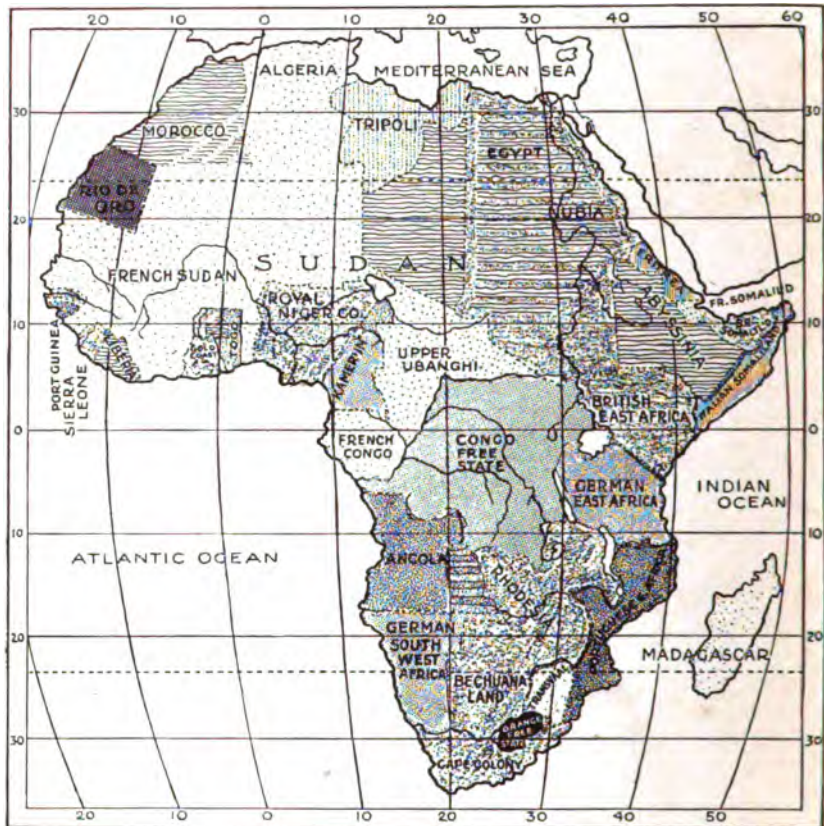
Africa now a factor in international affairs.

However this may be, the healthy rivalry of European states in the exploitation and development of this undeveloped possibility among the continents is a very real part of that rivalry of peace which is more characteristic of the present age than any rivalry of war. In Africa the

A new problem for the West.

progressive West has found a problem different in several ways from that confronting it in any other quarter of the earth. Here, except Egypt and the Barbary States, were no civilized states, no institutions that were of value to any one except the ethnologist; according to the accepted practise of all the ages, this continent was open to the civilized peoples to do with it as they would. Its resources were the legitimate prize of those who knew how to utilize them. Here, too, was a numerous population to save from the slave-catcher and from its own degradation, and to

POLITICAL MAP OF AFRICA.



Key to Map.

[1. French. 2. African. 3. British. 4. Italian. 5. German. 6. South African Republic (now British). 7. Belgian. 8. Spanish. 9. Portuguese. 10. Orange Free State (now British). 11. Turkish (Egypt is also nominally Turkish).]

People and climate.

bring to a better life. In availability of territory America and Australia had furnished a parallel to Africa, but experience has shown that the native populations in these cases were very different from the Africans. The American and Australian aborigines melted away before the advance of the white race, to whose occupancy these continents were well adapted. The dark races of Africa are of remarkable fertility and show no sign of diminishing in the face of the white advance, while much of Africa can never be made the permanent home of the white race, because of the climatic and physical conditions to which the native is adapted while the European is not. For many generations to come white administrators in Africa must reckon with a large native population. The native races are, therefore, of some importance as a part of the problem of Africa. It is

common to suppose that Africans are all negroes, but this is not so. On that continent for thousands of years different races of men have made their homes, had their great migrations, and struggled for mastery. The part of Africa occupied by true negroes was the broad belt extending from Senegal and the Guinea Coast eastward to Abyssinia, the country around the Victoria Nyanza, south to Lake Nyassa, and what is now the French Congo. There, too, in the depths of the forests lived a pygmy race, supposed to be the descendants of the primeval inhabitants who had been compelled to give way before the powerful negro tribes. In past centuries the southern part of the continent, from the Congo downward, was inhabited by the dwarfish Hottentots and Bushmen; but there developed on the upper waters of the Congo the Bantu negro tribes, all speaking dialects of the same mother tongue, who from two to three thousand years ago swept over the greater part of southern Africa in a series of migrations and invasions. The Basutos, Bechuanas, Zulus, Matabeles, and Mashonas, with other less prominent tribes, all known generically in South Africa as Kaffirs, are of Bantu stock. Northern Africa, with Egypt, Abyssinia, and Somaliland, was peopled in ancient times by Hamitic races, much lighter in color than the negroes, who probably came from the same root, but were much more progressive. Between this northern zone and the true negro belt was a region inhabited by a mixed negroid race, of whom the Nubians, Fulas, and Tibbus are representatives. Through all these regions, except the heart of central and southern Africa, where the negroid type has reigned undisturbed, Mohammedan Arabs have been distributed freely, representing all shades of semi-civilization. Indeed, the Arab slave-trader has been the curse of Africa for centuries and even now obstinately resists the combined efforts of the European governments to destroy his villainous trade.

Many tribes of Africans.

Africa has had in progress ever since the Christian era, and earlier by several hundred years, its own barbaric international drama, its own wild game of craft and war, but century by century the stronger white races have encroached upon the happy hunting-grounds of barbarism until now nearly all of Africa is actually or nominally under the regulation of some civilized power.¹ The story of Africa for the last quarter of a century is a story of steady and rapid invasion of the continent by trader, missionary, and colonist, and of the assumption by various European powers of sovereign or protectoral authority over large areas of territory not hitherto reclaimed from barbarism.

The history and present status of Africa.

CHAPTER XXI.

THE SCRAMBLE FOR AFRICA.

Until about twenty-five years ago the exploitation of Africa by Europeans had been conducted for the most part with that decorous deliberation which might have been expected from dignified states whose chief interests in the Dark Continent were those of science and religion. But the awakening of enthusiasm for colonies after the Franco-Prussian war gave a new interest to the attempt to shed light in this particularly dark corner of the earth, and the signal for what has been aptly called "the scramble for Africa" came from a quarter where it would hardly have been looked for, and in an unexpected way.

Beginning of the fever for African colonization.

Belgium, the French-speaking, Catholic end of the Netherlands, created an independent kingdom in 1830, is one of the most densely populated countries in the world and one of the most thrifty and industrially

¹ A luminous and suggestive forecast of the future of Africa, by one who is as well qualified to give it both by direct and personal knowledge and by sanity of judgment, as any man living, will be found in the concluding chapter of Sir H. H. Johnston's valuable little book, "The Colonization of Africa by Alien Races."

King Leopold and the International African Association.

active. Its need of some outlet for its superabundant population¹ and energies was very apparent to the present king, Leopold II., who, if he lacks something of the dignity and self-respect of high position, is certainly a keen and progressive business man. In the name of science and progress he effected in 1876 the organization of the International African Association, having the coöperation of prominent African explorers, and the friendly interest of several European governments. The association at first undertook to open a route with stations from Zanzibar to Lake Tanganyika; but in 1877 Stanley drew attention to the Congo country, and was sent there by King Leopold, in the name of the association, and maintained for five years, with ample resources. Through several thousand treaties with native chiefs rights were acquired along the Congo, and posts were established on the river. The money for this work is understood to have come from Leopold's private resources, but it was carried



DR. HENRY BARTH,
THE AFRICAN
EXPLORER.

(Reproduced, by permission, from Harper's Magazine. Copyright, 1898, Harper & Brothers.)

Territorial claims of the association.

through all the early stages under international auspices. Indeed, as England had more capable men trained for such work than any other country, the chief officers were for a time English. Much was said of the civilizing work of the association, and of the opening for trade of all nations; and Bismarck, especially, gave it the great weight of his unqualified support. The validity of the territorial claims of the association became a matter of world-wide interest. The United States Senate endorsed them in 1884 and European publicists discussed the questions raised as to the rights and sovereignty of this state that was not a state but an association of shareholders. The claim to about one-eleventh of the territory of Africa, projected into the heart of the continent and containing, as was being proved, great resources for trade, raised a question new to African movements,—the question of boundaries. The association's territory marched with French claims on the north and Portuguese on the south, and with vaguely defined German and English interests in the interior. The necessity of delimiting territory in Africa called attention to the national interests involved and to possible international competition. Outside of Belgium enthusiasm for the International African Association began to wane. The other states began to turn their attention to the condition of their own fences, and Leopold was left, as he probably expected to be, to push his Congo enterprise in his own way.

LEOPOLD II.,
KING OF BELGIUM.



¹ Belgium's population steadily increases. It averaged, in 1898, 586.4 to the square mile.

In 1884-85 the Berlin Conference did for the African question, as it then presented itself, what the Berlin Congress six years earlier had done for the Eastern question. Stanley and the British government had hoped that the Congo country would be ultimately organized under a British protectorate, and with that in view made an agreement with Portugal in 1884 which seemed to the other interested powers to convey a menace to their present or prospective interests, and this was one of the factors that brought about the holding of the conference. The first question settled was that of sovereignty in the association's territory. Recognition was accorded to the Congo Independent State, under the personal headship of the King of Belgium, but without any organic connection with Belgium. King Leopold promptly assumed authority and has since administered the Free State, in which by 1890, Belgian officers had entirely replaced the officials of other nationalities who had served the International African Association. The new state was neutralized by the conference. The king has been liberally assisted in the development of the Congo by the Belgian chambers and has bequeathed the Free State by will to Belgium. The adhesion of France to the decrees of the conference was only secured by recognizing her title to the territory known as the French Congo and the Upper Ubanghi, that is the northwestern portion of the Congo basin; and also by conceding to France a right of preëmption should the Congo State ever be transferred from Belgium to another power. Numerous treaties, negotiated between 1884 and 1894 with Germany, Great Britain, France, Portugal, and the Netherlands, have established the boundaries of the Congo State with some degree of clearness. It comprises something over 900,000 square miles of equatorial Africa, with an estimated population of about thirty million natives, chiefly of Bantu stock.

The Berlin Conference, 1884-85.

The Congo Independent State.



A LADY OF
TIMBUCTOO.

(From "Timbuctoo the
Mysterious," by Felix
Dubois. Longmans,
Green & Co.)

The settlement of the boundaries and status of the Congo Independent State was accompanied by other arrangements which determined in a general way the relations of the European powers in Africa, so that later treaties to which France, Germany, Great Britain and Italy have been parties have really supplemented the work done at Berlin fifteen years ago. A brief review of the position of the nations in Africa resulting from these adjustments will perhaps be helpful in studying the everchanging African map.

The new African map.

The principal Portuguese possessions in Africa are the great territory of Angola on the west coast, and Portuguese East Africa on the east coast. The former touches the Congo State on the north and northeast, Rhodesia (British) on the east, and German Southwest Africa on the south; and the latter, extending up the eastern coast from Natal to German East Africa, is bounded by the Transvaal, Rhodesia, and British Central Africa. There are in addition several islands and a small tract in Guinea. Portuguese Africa is principally managed by a chartered company. The chief questions affecting Portuguese territory have arisen in connection with Great Britain,* and the historical friendship of the two countries

Portugal.



* For example, the dispute over the possession of Delagoa Bay on the east coast.

Spain.

keeps such questions out of the range of serious international complications. Portugal's neighbor, Spain, has in her more brilliant past shown some interest in northwestern Africa, but in her general decadence as a world power retains nothing but the Canary Islands, the little island of Fernando Po, where English interests prevail, and an insignificant protectorate at Rio d'Ouro.

The Dutch.

The Dutch were among the earlier Europeans to establish stations in Africa for purposes of trade. At the beginning of the seventeenth century they had a chain of forts on the Gold Coast of Guinea and they were for a long time actively engaged in the slave trade. When that declined they relaxed their hold, and in 1872 their last post in this region was ceded to England in return for the cession of certain English rights in Sumatra. St. Helena was originally held by the Dutch, but was taken by the English in 1655, and this possession was finally confirmed in 1673. The island of Mauritius was also held by the Dutch from 1598 until 1710,

when it was given up and afterward taken by France, to pass later to England. The Dutch settlement at Cape Town was made in the middle of the seventeenth century, as a station on the way to the great Dutch possessions in the East Indies. It was never a prosperous colony. It was hampered by the tyrannical administration

**ROCK INSCRIPTIONS
BY BUSHMEN IN
SOUTH AFRICA.**

(From "Seven Years in
South Africa," by Dr. Emil
Rehnb. Published by
Boughton, Mifflin & Co.)



British intervention.

Dutch South Africa
finally ceded to
Great Britain.

Great Britain.

characteristic of the earlier history of the great Dutch commercial companies. Enterprise and freedom of action were lacking, and negro slavery was introduced on account of the scarcity of free labor. An unsuccessful English attack was made upon the colony in 1778, during the war between England and Holland, and the last great Bantu invasion, following this, involved the colony in a struggle which it was ill-prepared to wage. In 1795 the Stadtholder, Prince of Orange, driven out of Holland, by the French, then crusading for republics, took refuge in England and authorized Great Britain to take possession of Cape Colony in the name of the Netherlands States General. Great Britain had long had a watchful eye on the cape and now took the colony, holding it for eight years in trust, after which for three years the Batavian Republic governed it in a more liberal way than had marked the previous Dutch rule by the company. But in 1806 the colony was taken by a strong British expedition, and with what is now British Guiana was ceded to Great Britain in the general settlement of 1814, for six million pounds. The same settlement enabled Holland to retrieve her East Indian losses, and there her real interests lay. Thus the Dutch flag ceased to fly over any part of Africa, but this reference to earlier Dutch Africa has a place here properly because of the relation of the Dutch colonial contingent to recent South African history. Great Britain, already established on the west coast, thus became a power in South Africa, and, since the Berlin conference, has pushed northward into the interior by successive explorations and occupations, until, with Bechuanaland, Rhodesia, and British Central Africa, its territories extend in a broad belt through the heart of tropical and sub-tropical Africa to Nyassa and Tanganyika. Here German East Africa intervenes between the British southern block and British East Africa. Before these

advances were made, the limits of Cape Colony had been much extended and Natal had been acquired, the latter in 1843. English connection of West Africa began in the middle of the sixteenth century, when trade with the Guinea countries in slaves, gold, and ivory became attractive. Later England became even more earnest in the suppression of the slave trade. By various treaties with the other European nations which were interested in this part of the continent, the latest being that with France in 1898 and the Anglo-German agreement of 1899, the British status in this part of the continent has been established with some degree of definiteness.

The French movement southward from Algeria into the Sahara and the Sudan has been already mentioned. The French sphere in West Africa is the northern part of the Congo watershed. The ambitious attempt to anticipate or supplant England in the eastern Sudan proved a failure, and the French government found it necessary to disown it. The French African possessions have not thus far proved successful either from an economic or an administrative standpoint and thus far France seems to be repeating in Africa her older history of ambitions but futile colonial enterprise.

The German African possessions are of recent origin. In the old Brandenburg days there was some attempt at trade with the African west coast, but Brandenburg and later Prussia, had another task than the colonization of Africa. From the middle of the century German missionaries were active in Damara and Namaqua lands, thus making the beginnings of German Southwest Africa, but here and elsewhere, following

the conservative Bismarckian colonial policy, Germany made haste slowly. It only took control in southwest Africa when its citizens demanded protection and Great Britain refused, after repeated invitations, to assume jurisdiction. On the other hand in 1884, Dr. Nachtigal, the eminent German explorer, took summary possession of Togoland, adjoining the British Gold Coast Colony on the east, and of the Cameroons, which are similarly placed with reference to British Nigeria, lying between that territory and the French Congo region. In the same year of activity Germany began those operations about Kilima-njaro and the Victoria Nyanza which resulted in the organization of German East Africa. Great Britain was hampered in this district



AFRICAN TYPE—
IBAKA, KING OF
BOLOBO, ON THE
CONGO.

Germany's posses-
sions in Africa.

AFRICAN TYPE—
KING MUNZA IN
FULL DRESS,
CENTRAL AFRICA.

by a treaty with France which pledged non-interference with the sultanate of Zanzibar. Therefore, while Great Britain negotiated, Germany, not

THE GORILLA
DANCE, IN THE
FRENCH CONGO.



The Germans as
colonizers.

hitherto considered in connection with this part of Africa, stepped in and acted. Zanzibar became a British protectorate in 1891, but meanwhile German East Africa had been established and recognized in the Anglo-German agreement of 1890. German operations in Africa have been characterized by the thorough, scientific method that has marked each step of Germany's advance as a world power. I cannot do better than quote an admirable statement on this point by Sir H. H. Johnston. It is applicable elsewhere as well as to Africa:

"It will be seen, I fancy, when history takes a review of the foundation of these African states, that the unmixed Teuton—Dutchman or German—is on first contact with subject races apt to be harsh and even brutal, but that he is no fool and wins the respect of the negro or the Asiatic, who admires brute force; while his own good nature in time induces a softening of manners when the native has ceased to rebel and begun to cringe. There is this that is wholesome and hopeful about the Germans: they are quick to realize their own defects, and equally quick to amend them. As in commerce, so in government, they observe and master the best principles. The politician would be very shortsighted who underrated the greatness of the German character, or reckoned on the evanescence of German dominion in strange lands."³

Italy.

One other European state, Italy, has wished to become an African power. It holds Eritrea on the Red sea and Italian Somaliland on the Indian ocean. These colonies adjoin Abyssinia and the British spheres of influence, and it is in great measure to the friendship of Great Britain that Italy owes its continuance in this region, where it has hardly been able to make good its position against the hatred of Abyssinia.

CHAPTER XXII.

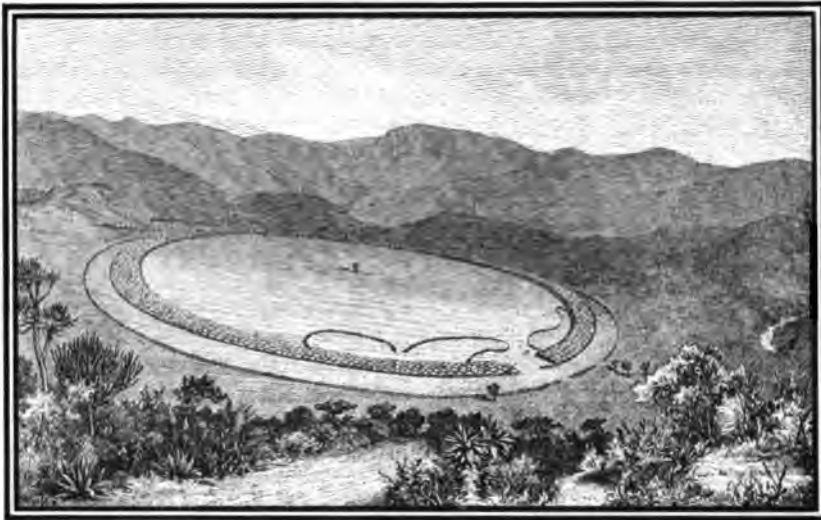
FROM THE CAPE TO CAIRO.

Africa controlled by
Teutonic nations.

There is little room for doubt, in the present aspect of affairs, that the future of Africa lies in the hands of the two great Teutonic nations that have always shown the most complete mastery of successful principles of politics in their dealing with alien races. Italy and Portugal are dependent for the prosperity and security of their colonies upon the friendship of these more powerful neighbors; and should they give up their African possessions Germany and Great Britain are morally certain to become their legatees, unless a radical change takes place in international relations. France is nominally a heavy owner of African real estate and has



³ "Colonization of Africa," p. 258.



A ZULU TOWN,
SOUTH AFRICA.
(From "Africa, Exploration
and Adventure," by
Charles H. Jones.)

large plans for its development, among others the project of a railway from Algeria across the desert to some point in French western Africa. But French management of such possessions lacks the solid, practical common sense that enables the great rivals of France to hold colonies once acquired, in spite of manifold mistakes and gross lack of tact in dealing with the natives. French ambition soars too high and wide. In Egypt, France held equal ground with England until the Arabi rebellion, when the field was left to the Briton, with the known result. France has repented in the years that have followed and has sought to recover its hold in the Nile valley, but its one European ally, Russia, has no encouragement to give to this scheme, and without support France can do nothing. An attempt was made by the expedition of Major Marchand to establish French control in the Egyptian Sudan. Pushing across the Bahr el Ghazal with an insignificant expeditionary force, he occupied the village of Fashoda on the Upper Nile, and was there in peril of destruction by the dervishes when he was relieved by that very British success it had been his object to forestall. It became necessary for the French government to disclaim responsibility and order Marchand to retire by the shortest route to French Somaliland. He returned to France to be made for a brief space a French popular hero; but French popular heroes are easily made, and the great international fact that the Marchand expedition had been an ignominious failure remained unchanged.

Weakness of
French
management.



MAJOR J. B.
MARCHAND.

This struggle for the Egyptian Sudan is of the utmost importance in the history of Africa. The traveler up the Nile at a distance of nearly six hundred miles above Cairo comes to the First Cataract and the village and frontier post of Assouan. Here Upper Egypt ends. Southward in great terraces stretches the tropical expanse of Nubia and the Egyptian Sudan, across which the Nile and its confluent bring down their paternal waters from the great lakes in the interior of equatorial Africa, giving life to the fertile valley in which

Mahdist risings.

LADY OF HIGH RANK
IN OLD CALABAR,
WEST AFRICA.
(From "The Ogowe Band,"
by Joseph H. Reading.)



Great Britain's attempt at regula- tion.

ON THE WAR-PATH
IN MASAI LAND,
EAST AFRICA.
(From "Through Masai
Land," by Joseph Thomson.
Houghton, Mifflin & Co.)



civilization has left its records for thousands of years. From Assouan to Khartum, the chief town of Nubia, is sandy desert; but southward from Khartum stretches a fertile country of wide extent, inhabited by mixed Arab and negro races. From the year 1819, when Mehemet Ali conquered the Sudan, it was ruled by the khedives until the revolt of the Mahdi in 1883. For countless centuries this country has been a menace to Egypt. The oppressive government of the khedives might for a time compel subjection, but it also stored up the seeds of rebellion among the untamed and fearless Sudanese. Fanatical religious leaders, known as Mahdis or Messiahs, have frequently appeared among these people, but in this year of outbreak there came one, Mohammed Ahmed, who united politics of a primitive sort with his religious leadership. The flame of rebellion spread like wildfire, and was fanned by the more secular genius of the lieutenant of the Mahdi, the Khalifah Abdallah, who succeeded to the leadership of the dervishes, as the Mahdi's followers are called, upon the latter's death in 1885.

It has long been recognized by European statesmen that control of Lower Egypt must have as its corollary control of the upper waters of the Nile. The restless tribes of the desert could not be allowed to hang like a threatening cloud over northeastern Africa, nor could the European power that was deeply interested in the security and neutrality of Egypt as a gateway of the East allow any other power to cross Africa and control the upper courses of its most important river. Great Britain's heavy stake in Egypt compelled the suppression of the nationalist rebellion of Arabi and the securing of adequate guaranties for future sane and responsible government. The same insistent conditions compelled the British government, when the Egyptian rebellion had been broken at Tel el Kebir, to undertake a continuance of its police service against the Mahdi in the Sudan. A force of eleven thousand men, despatched to Khartum under Hicks Pasha was annihilated, and the rebellion grew with victory. An Egyptian force met the same fate. Then it was decided to abandon the Sudan, and the mission of extricating the troops garrisoning Sudanese posts was entrusted to that chivalrous crusader of civilization, Charles George Gordon, who had been governor-general of the Sudan from 1874 to 1879, knew the people, and had done a great work for progress and good government. Armed with a new commission

from the Egyptian government as governor-general of the Sudan, Gordon arrived in Khartum on the 18th of February, 1884. He speedily realized that to remain there with the force at his command would surely result in his being cut off from Egypt, but he had a duty to do and he faced it without hesitation. The English government, then directed by Mr. Gladstone, acted slowly on the information sent from Khartum, and it was not until summer that active military preparations were made for the relief of Khartum. It was late in the year when the expedition started by the Nile route, under the command of Lord Wolseley, with orders to rescue Gordon and his associates, and retire. The story of Gordon's martyrdom and of the gallant but useless campaign for his rescue is a familiar one. It is one of the saddest and most dramatic passages in recent history. With heavy loss the expedition fought its way to Khartum, arriving on the 28th of January, 1885, only to find that the city had been taken by the Mahdi and that Gordon was dead. With Russian activity giving anxiety on the borders of India, England did not care to address itself to the serious military problem in the Sudan, and its forces retired, with nothing but bad news to show for the great sacrifice of brave lives.

Gordon's death at Khartum.

Not until 1894 was the attempt to conquer and reorganize the Sudan renewed. By that time the relations between Great Britain and Egypt had been adjusted upon a working basis, and the important Anglo-German agreement of 1890 had established an understanding between the two most important African powers, an understanding which included a recognition of the equatorial provinces of Egypt within the British sphere. The followers of the Mahdi under his successor, the Khalifah Abdallah, had strengthened themselves, but on the other hand the reorganization of the Egyptian army under the sirdar, Sir Herbert Kitchener, had wonderfully increased its efficiency, as the campaigns of 1894 to 1898 abundantly proved. By steady and systematic advance the khalifah was hemmed in, and finally at Omdurman on the 2nd of September, 1898, the final act in the tragedy of which Gordon's martyrdom had been the opening was played. The successful check put upon the French project at Fashoda, ratified in the supplementary treaty of 1899 between France and Great Britain, secured from another rival recognition of the latter's sphere from Darfur and the Bahr el Ghazal eastward. Thus is brought nearer the realization of the Cape to Cairo route, under British guardianship through the length of Africa, which has been the dream of earnest explorers and organizers like Sir Harry Johnston and of ambitious empire builders like Cecil Rhodes.



A SUDAN NEGRO.
(From "Actual Africa,"
by Frank Vincent.
Copyright, 1896, by
D. Appleton & Co.)

If the key to the East African situation in the north is the control of the Egyptian Sudan, in the south it is the possession or control of the habitable regions of South Africa. Here are situated the largest areas of African territory fitted for the habitation of white men that were not already preëmpted when they became known to Europeans. By whom are they possessed? By Germany and Great Britain. All of South Africa that is adapted to white colonization is possessed by these two powers, and it is a country of great strategic value and of large resources. By far the greater portion is British, but the British problem here is a

Importance of South Africa.

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The British in
South Africa.

difficult one, because of a considerable Dutch creole population, mixed to some extent with French Huguenot blood. Here is ample reason for hatred of English control. It would be rash to attempt a forecast of the immediate effect of the South African war upon the British colonies in that part of the world. It is safer to predict the ultimate result. The war has produced a remarkable outburst of sympathetic loyalty from the great self-governing colonies of the British empire, and has in so much strengthened England's hands. The fruitless mission of the Boer commissioners and of Mr. Kruger in Europe has shown that the European powers are not prepared to bring about any great international dissension for a people who are working for an essentially selfish end. The state that would today hold especial privileges and control valuable parts of the earth's surface must offer some broader plea than that of a mere selfish independence, and that is all that the Boer states of South Africa have to say for themselves. The ultimate victory of Great Britain is sure, and in it lies the best hope of progress for South Africa.

Strength of British
and German
positions.

It is, then, because of the strategic value of the territories more or less completely controlled by them; because their coöperation or agreement is necessary for the completion of the greatest projects for African development; and because of their superior colonial system, and their racial persistence in enterprises once undertaken, that I regard Great Britain and Germany as the dominating forces in Africa today,—a position they are not likely to lose unless some startling revolution in international relations takes place in Europe. And the advancement of civilization in the Dark Continent cannot be placed in more efficient hands.

CHAPTER XXIII.

THE ENTRANCE OF THE NEW WORLD.

Opening of new
continents.

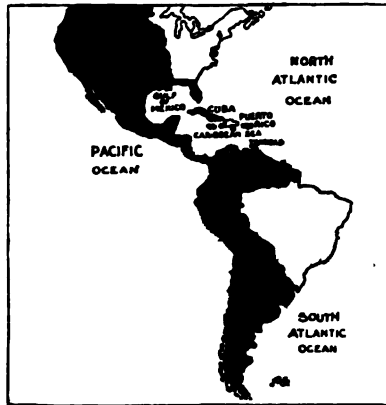
Columbus and his successors, sailing westward across the Sea of Darkness in search of the Indies, found their way barred by a great continental mass, long mistaken for the object of their quest. Upon the twin continents thus discovered, Spanish, French, and English conquerors and colonizers brought into effective existence a new world. The English statesman, Canning, centuries later, boasted that by his encouragement of the United States in the promulgation of the Monroe doctrine he had "brought into existence the New World to redress the balance of the Old." More properly might the hardy colonizers of earlier date have made the same proud boast, but like most pioneer creators of new historic epochs, few of them could foresee the results of their work. The Spaniards were disappointed at not finding the fabled wealth of the Indies, and they and their successors for two centuries were quite as much interested in discovering gateways to the East through the new lands as in making those lands themselves fruitful. Especially after the wonderful voyages of Magellan and Drake had rectified geographical errors, was there an ardent desire to shorten the long route which those great navigators had followed so painfully. But gradually, as American colonization proceeded and the resources of the new countries became apparent, interest in the westward route to the Indies gave place to greater matters. Upon every sea and on many coasts was heard the thunder of cannon in the great battle for supremacy between Catholic Spain and Protestant England. Virginia was settled in defiance of Spain, and then and there was born, with that wretched little settlement on the James, a new state that was to finally destroy the last remnant of Spanish power in the western hemisphere, where Spain had led the way, and in the farther East; a state that was to enter the twentieth century as the recognized first power of the world in all the true elements of national strength. Nothing greater than this stupendous achievement is recorded.

The struggle for
supremacy.

In the sixteenth century Spain, freed from Moorish domination, with powerful alliances and great possessions that were pouring gold into its treasury, seemed to be the great world power,¹ and threatened to extend in Europe, in America, and in the Orient that merciless religio-political tyranny which had become the policy of its Catholic monarchy. In America it held the chief islands of the Caribbean, western North America, Mexico and Central America, and all of South America except Portuguese Brazil. Had its policy been broad and its methods sound it had before it an unrivaled opportunity for the development of national greatness, and its people were capable of much under right leadership. But its sovereigns chose a narrow and reactionary tyranny, destroyed the liberty and individuality of their own people, and by their arrogant course challenged the representatives of a freer life everywhere to aggressive resistance. The result was the revolt of the Netherlands which freed the Dutch from Spanish control; and the long intermittent struggle which brought insular England into life as a world power, crippled Spain, and checked its advance in America.

Spain as a world power.

The Spanish power checked.



MAP, SHOWING IN BLACK WHAT SPAIN OWNED IN NORTH AND SOUTH AMERICA IN 1800.

Furthermore, as time went on, discontent grew among the restless half-Spanish people of the Latin American states, until they threw off an insufferable bondage and attempted, blunderingly and recklessly, but for themselves, an independent existence. To them, having no heritage of popular institutions, the Anglo-Saxon republic at the north was a shining example which they tried to follow, but always with that tendency to autocracy and factional dissension that is at all times characteristic of Latin attempts at democracy, whether made by Spaniard, Frenchman, or Italian. When European reactionaries, attracted by the opportunities which the divided condition of Latin America seemed to offer, gave indications of intent to profit thereby, the northern republic in 1823 reached out its strong young hand and said "thus far and no farther." The Monroe doctrine has not and never had any standing in international law. It was merely a declaration of a national American policy, but as such it was of vital significance in the world's history. It marked the completion of the independence of America from European control, with freedom for future development. It declared that in the western hemisphere there should be full opportunity for the growth of the new nationality, resting on the nation and not on the private ambitions of an individual or a privileged class; that the institution of "government of the people, by the people, and for the people" was not to be allowed to perish from the earth at the behest of Old World reactionaries. It did not represent a new fact; it gave definite statement to things accomplished.

American independence declared in the Monroe doctrine.

One of the things which the Monroe doctrine emphatically pointed out to the world was the full-armed entrance of a new and unspoiled Anglo-Saxon power into the arena of the world's activities. It was this, rather than any possible sanction of law or force that might lie behind it, which gave and still gives its importance in the eyes of Europe to this dictum of a president of the United States. When England in its

The real force of the Monroe doctrine.

¹ Sir Robert Giffen, than whom there is no more eminent statistician, has recently ranked the world powers in the following order: The United States, Great Britain, Russia, Germany; with France a doubtful fifth. This estimate has reference to individual and national resources, as well as to population.

struggle with Spain endeavored to offset the Spanish-American power by making an establishment in North America, it opened the long and wonderful chapter of English colonial development. Here the narrow island state learned its most difficult lessons in the elementary principles of national expansion; creating through its costly mistakes a new nation which continued in a wider field the development of the old English polity, and fulfilled the noble mission of the Anglo-Saxon race in the New World better than it was in the power of England itself to fulfil it, under the social and political conditions then existing in the kingdom.

England against
France.

In the national struggles which made North America Anglo-Saxon, England had not only to confine Spain within the regions of its original

conquests; it had also to contend with France when that country had reached the pinnacle of its greatness and had succeeded Spain as the great Catholic power of Europe. This was a chapter in another great historic struggle between rival systems of society and government. France, like Spain, met its real defeat in the New World.



HOUSES OF
CONGRESS,
SANTIAGO, CHILE.

Its courtier-ministers played with airy grace a gambler's game, with world empire for the stake, and lost. Henceforth the Anglo-Saxon dominated the New World. This made possible the revolt of a part of the American branch of the Anglo-Saxon family, who were building a state upon the principles native to the race, against the English branch which was bound too much by acquired methods and habits of the Old World. The result justified the act; but England was not expelled from the American continent, nor was its power broken. The American Revolution and the succeeding contentions were in the nature of family discussions over vital principles; they were not wars of hostile races or nations or religions. England retained on this side of the Atlantic what became one of its best and strongest colonies, existing in immediate proximity to the vigorous new state that so soon outgrew its parent. Thus practical territorial unity, a community of interests and of mission, and race relationship, unite to bring Great Britain and the United States side by side at critical moments when the ideas and interests for which both stand are threatened from without. These plain and vital forces have been slow in working out their results because of old antagonisms and the infiltration of other strains than the English among the people of the United States; but they are none the less real and none the less sure of ultimate vindication.

The Anglo-Saxon
separation and its
meaning.

A dream of empire.

When Lord Rosebery drew that eloquent word picture the other day at Glasgow University of what the history of the British empire might have been had Pitt and Burke and Fox controlled English policy in those years that produced the American Revolution, instead of George III., Lord North, and Townsend, he was indulging a lively imagination, but he was pointing a valuable moral. It is not at all inconceivable that, had England recognized the just demands of the colonies and their loyalty to the best traditions of their race, the seat of British empire might now be found in the great continent it would have

held, with the British Isles an outpost on the east. It is not so clear that the work of the Anglo-Saxon for free institutions would have been so well done as it has been through the sharp rivalry of the United States and Great Britain, nor that the growth of the present United States would have been so splendid had it been subject to the jealousy and hostility of the European nations, instead of occupying an independent position which allowed it to grow and expand with little hostile interference. Nevertheless, this recent utterance of a British statesman shows how these two related peoples have been pursuing by different paths a common destiny which must bring them into closer sympathy as time goes on.

The New World, then, opens the twentieth century practically free from all trammels of the Old, since Great Britain stands substantially for the ideals of today. The dominating influence is Anglo-Saxon, but south of the United States is a body of Latin-American states, endowed with restless pride and independence, jealous of each other and learning slowly the lessons of self-control and mutual respect that are necessary to successful popular government. Mexico, after many vicissitudes, has established under President Diaz a government that is at once liberal, wise, and strong; but, like the government of all these Latin-American states, it depends too much upon one strong hand. What factional strife will do when that strong hand is removed no one who has watched the development of Latin-American politics would care to prophesy. The little Central American republics are being drawn into the drag net of world policies by the strategic position they occupy between the two great oceans. Their security and neutralization is likely to be the care of the world powers if they conduct themselves discreetly. In South America, the Argentine Republic, Brazil, long the only empire of the New World, now a republic, and Chile have enjoyed much prosperity, comparative stability of government, and are the chief factors in distinctly South American affairs.

Political condition of the New World today.

South America, with its abundant resources and its comparative weakness politically, is a temptation to European powers, but the firm stand of the United States upon the principles of the Monroe doctrine is a constant warning to non-interference in American affairs. At the present time there is but one power that occupies a relation toward America that is a possible source of trouble. The commercial and financial interests of Germany in Mexico, Central and South America are large and steadily increasing. If in any of the disturbances peculiar to South American republics circumstances should arise which call for German intervention, the present German emperor might conceivably carry interference farther than the United States would regard as warranted. Such an event is, fortunately, not a probability, and every dictate of prudence and wise statesmanship, as well as every tradition of the two nations, would call for a peaceful and fair adjustment of differences.

German interests in South America.

CHAPTER XXIV.

GROWTH OF THE FOREIGN POLICY OF THE UNITED STATES.

During the years of the century just closed, while Great Britain has been governing India and absorbing and organizing territories on every continent; while France has been reaching out for dominion in Asia and Africa; while Germany has been realizing itself and lately pushing its trade interests throughout the world; and while Russia has been quietly gathering central and eastern Asia into its firm and unrelenting grasp,—the United States, born at Jamestown, Plymouth, and Boston in protest against tyranny, foreign or native, has grown rapidly into the stature of a mature nation, a little awkward from its rapid growth, a little brusque and over-sensitive, but strong with the eager, passionate strength of

Isolation and early growth of the United States.

of navigation and transportation prevailing in the early stages of its national history it was comparatively detached from the great world of affairs in which the European nations were involved. It simply said to them, "Hands off," and went its own way. This remoteness and the preoccupation of Europe during much of the century secured for the young nation that comparative isolation which it desired and needed. It was thus enabled to attain its growth without being warped and twisted by influences alien to its true national character.

Foreign policy of
the United States.

Yet there was never lacking to the United States a consistent policy with reference to the world outside. The common supposition that this

country has been without a foreign policy has been due to the fact that the people have not in years past seen much beyond their domestic affairs; they have not followed until lately the working of the state department, which has pursued in spite of many vagaries and a certain rough and ready diplomacy, a consistent traditional course, with which changes of party have had little to do. During the first three administrations,



STATUE OF THE
LIBERATOR BOLIVAR,
IN LIMA, PERU.

when the difficult problems of organization were being worked out, the prudent wisdom of Washington and of Adams sought by every compromise short of absolute national humiliation to avoid the conflicts in which England and France were eager to involve the country, and for which it was utterly unprepared. This period of helpless dependence upon European conditions, a period natural to a young, new nation, was brought to a close by the war of 1812, which, although it was a military failure and a political boomerang, offered just enough of success to give confidence to the new generation then taking hold of affairs, and served notice on Europe that the United States was no longer in leading-strings, but was a self-respecting nation with rights which it proposed to defend while still adhering to the old policy of keeping free from European entanglements. The administration of President Monroe took a further step in the direction of broader relations. Although the phrase "sphere of influence" was not used and would not in its present sense be wholly applicable, yet its main idea was embodied in the Monroe doctrine, which assumed a right on the part of the United States to a measure of influence in safeguarding the interests of the western hemisphere, the Spanish part of which had just thrown off its Old World allegiance. The general position thus taken was specifically reinforced by the administration's attitude in regard to Cuba. The elaborate instructions of John Quincy Adams, then secretary of state, to the minister of the United States to Spain, in relation to that island, were for seventy-five years the text of the United States policy, until the McKinley administration carried out their precepts. Briefly stated, this doctrine was that the United States could allow no other foreign power to dispossess Spain. If the time should come when Spain must go out and another power must go into Cuba, that power must be the United States, as the nation most immediately interested. This is interesting as a statement of a doctrine not so fully recognized at that time as it is today. Furthermore, the United States would hold Spain strictly responsible for good government in the island. Spain certainly could not complain in 1898 of lack of

American sphere of
influence.

The United States
and Cuba.

For half a century the gigantic intervention somewhat obscured the diplomacy to follow through the treaties and the whole stirring period the scarcely varied along the line laid down in the policy might almost be summarized in live;" but there is to be found in none Americans — Adams, Jackson, Clay, Van Olney, Hay, who are the real makers of weak indifference to the world's affairs, a thing apart, which is found in some these doctrines that are frequently in part we find in them the declarations as the primary need of the nation mature of resources, but recognizing its relations bounded by the American horizon, a world to bear its part. By this is not meant which is sometimes held to be the core but a self-centered strength that is pre-empt in all emergencies, and to extend their institutions wherever just opportun principles are as far from rampant in of size, as they are from that hesitant verbal constitutionalism which passes imperialism." The world sweeps on in every constitution that is to survive in changing conditions without losing its To demand freedom of opportunity for nationality, in either of the continents, a nation the right to play its full part in sense of justice may dictate, is a rational same principles already applied under the

While this foreign policy has been unparalleled growth in territory and secured large acquisitions of territory in Russia has consolidated an enormous



two great oceans and suggesting that be a sea-power of the first rank; together by mighty river systems, and necessary to sustain a numerous people but by true colonists, of kindred race of assimilating American political and the only large and important alien element acquired from European or other American

one point of vantage on the Caribbean, which the isthmian canal will make one of the most important of seas.

These recent events are sometimes spoken of in the United States as if they had opened a new foreign policy, whereas they are simply the outcome, brought about quickly through a somewhat violent shaking up, of the preparation of the whole history of the nation.

REVIEW QUESTIONS.

1. Why has so little been known of Africa until modern times? 2. What has been gained by Portuguese explorations of the continent? 3. Why was there little incentive to go further? 4. What directed English attention to the region of the Niger? 5. Who inaugurated the period of scientific discovery? 6. Show how this work has developed. 7. Why has there been as yet little clashing of European interests in Africa? 8. How does the problem of the African aborigines differ from that encountered in America and Australia?

CHAPTER XX.

1. What circumstances led to the opening of the Congo country? 2. Why was Leopold left with the enterprise in his own hands? 3. How is the Congo State administered at present? 4. What is the relation of France to the Congo State? 5. Where are the Portuguese possessions in Africa? 6. How did the Dutch lose their settlement at Cape Town? 7. Where are the chief English possessions in Africa? 8. What has been the history of France in Africa? 9. What was the "conservative Bismarckian colonial policy"? 10. When was German East Africa established?

CHAPTER XXI.

1. What two nations are likely to have the future control of Africa? 2. How did France fail to secure a hold upon the Sudan? 3. What is the character of Africa south of Khartum? 4. What formidable native rebellions have taken place in this region? 5. What fatal results followed England's early attempts to conquer the Sudan? 6. Under what circumstances was success finally achieved? 7. Why is it probable that England and Germany will control Africa?

CHAPTER XXII.

1. Compare the position of the United States in 1609 and 1901. 2. How has the power of Spain steadily declined during this period? 3. What relation did the United States early assume towards affairs in the western hemisphere? 4. Through what great international struggles did England pass in the eighteenth century? 5. What elements of stability can be found in the governments south of the United States? 6. What possible difficulties for the United States exist in the relation of Germany to South America?

CHAPTER XXIII.

1. What enterprises have occupied the other great nations while the United States has been coming to its maturity? 2. What was the general policy of Washington and Adams? 3. What further step did Monroe take? 4. What has been the attitude of the United States for many years towards Cuba? 5. What sound foreign policy has the nation steadily pursued? 6. What important position does the United States occupy in relation to the Pacific ocean? 7. What far-reaching results came from the Spanish-American war?

CHAPTER XXIV.

1. What was the Buxton Expedition of 1841? 2. Under what circumstances did Leopold II. come into power? 3. What occasioned the dispute over Delagoa bay? 4. What was the Batavian Republic? 5. What famous poem by Kipling deals with the Sudanese rebellion? 6. Why did Zanzibar become a British protectorate?

Search Questions.

XVI. AFRICA.

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TOPICAL ANALYSIS.

THE EXPLOITATION OF AFRICA.

CHAPTER XX.

Why Africa was so early and so little known.
 Early Portuguese explorations.
 Later African exploration.
 The English on the Niger.
 Barth and the scientific explorers.
 Periods of African exploitation.
 The new political problem.
 Africa now a factor in international affairs.
 The rivalry of peace.
 People and climate.
 The history and present status of Africa.

THE SCRAMBLE FOR AFRICA.

CHAPTER XXI.

Beginning of the fever for African colonization.
 King Leopold and the International African Association.
 Opening of the Congo country.
 The new question of boundaries.
 The Berlin Conference, 1884-85.
 The Congo Independent State.
 The French reservation.
 Other adjustments.
 The new African map.
 Portugal and Spain.
 The Dutch.
 British intervention.
 South Africa ceded to Great Britain.
 Great Britain.
 France.
 Germany.
 The Germans as colonizers.
 Italy.

FROM THE CAPE TO CAIRO.

CHAPTER XXII.

Africa controlled by Teutonic nations.
 French weakness.
 Importance of the Egyptian Sudan.
 Conditions in the Sudan.
 Mahdist risings.
 Great Britain's attempt at regulation.
 Gordon's martyrdom.
 Kitchener's successful campaigns.
 Importance of South Africa.
 The British in South Africa.
 Strength of British and German positions.

THE ENTRANCE OF THE NEW WORLD.

CHAPTER XXIII.

The opening of new continents.
 The struggle for supremacy.
 Spain as a world power — its advance checked.
 The Monroe doctrine a declaration of American independence.
 Its real force.
 England against France.
 The Anglo-Saxon separation and its meaning.
 Lord Rosebery's dream of empire.
 Political condition of the world today.
 German interests in South America.

GROWTH OF THE FOREIGN POLICY OF THE UNITED STATES.

CHAPTER XXIV.

Isolation and early growth of the United States.
 The foreign policy of the United States.
 The American sphere of influence.
 The United States and Cuba.
 Fifty years of internal struggle.
 A true American policy.
 Territorial growth.
 The westward movement.
 Importance of the Pacific.
 Needs of the new situation.
 The Spanish war.
 Important indirect results.

A READING JOURNEY in the ORIENT

[The voyage from New York to Gibraltar, scenes in Tangier and Algiers, and the arrival at Alexandria were described in the October issue. In November, Alexandria, the trip to Upper Egypt, and scenes along the Nile were the subjects considered. In December, "Down the Nile to Cairo" was the topic. "Modern Palestine and Syria" were treated in January. The subject in February was "Glimpses of Asia Minor."]

Summary of Preceding Chapters.

VI. CONSTANTINOPLE.

BY EDWIN A. GROSVENOR.

(Department of Modern Governments and Their Administration, Amherst College.)



THE tourist who approaches Constantinople from northern or western Europe may exercise a choice between two main routes, each of which possesses advantages of its own. The quicker, more direct, and less interesting, is by rail. It traverses Servia, Bulgaria, and the great Thracian plain, and enters the city at its southwestern corner. This route combines speed and ease of travel, but nowhere does it afford more than unsatisfactory glimpses of Constantinople and of its situation.

Approaches to Constantinople.

The second route is by steamer from one of the harbor cities on the Black sea. It penetrates the Bosphorus between the Cyanean rocks of Jason and of the Argonauts at its northern mouth. Down that narrow strait it continues for more than fifteen miles between what in both natural and artificial beauty seem enchanted shores. At last the steamer stops opposite Seraglio point and seven-hilled Stamboul.

But the tourist who has been journeying in Egypt and Palestine must approach the city from the south, and has but one route to follow. Whether the last point he touches is the Piræus, the famous harbor of Athens, or the island port of Syra, or Smyrna on the inmost curve of her magnificent bay, it is all one. He is restricted to a single route, but a route almost unequalled in its splendor and unrivaled in its richness of association. His ship winds through the Ægean sea, the Isles of Greece dotting the horizon in every



MAP OF THE BOSPORUS AND PRINCES' ISLANDS. (From Grosvenor's "Constantinople.")

SERAGLIO POINT.



Plain of Troy.

direction. As it enters the Dardanelles, on the right is Tenedos of which Virgil wrote, and on the left Lemnos where according to Greek mythology Vulcan fell. The narrow strip of sand to the north is the Thracian Chersonesus, over which Miltiades ruled as tyrant before he defeated the Persians at Marathon. On the south is the Plain of Troy with its funeral mounds and marshy rivers, and in the distance may be discovered the mountain peaks of many-fountained Ida. The steamer cuts its way between the coasts which Xerxes joined with his bridge of boats, and leaves on the right Lapsaki where the Athenian Themistocles dwelt in exile. As the channel widens, to the south is the Granicus river where Alexander won his first victory in Asia, and to the north is Goat river or *Ægos Potamos* where the Athenians in the Peloponnesian war met their final and fatal defeat. As the Dardanelles broadens into the Sea of Marmora, the ship keeps on toward the northeast. From its prow may be seen the rounded hill of Guebiseh, the ancient Lybissa, where Hannibal died and where tradition locates his unknown grave.

THE COLUMN
OF CONSTANTINE
THE GREAT.

The direction slightly changes and veers toward the north. In front is revealed a maze of islands and of European and Asiatic hills. Gradually walls and domes and spires emerge and become distinct. The shores contract and form the southern mouth of the Bosphorus. On the right is the blunt promontory of Scutari, covered with mosques and houses, and with vast yellow barracks stretched out at its foot. On the



Sancta Sophia.

left is Seraglio point, occupying the site of ancient Byzantium, marked by the colossal form of the cathedral of Sancta Sophia. Its transformation into the mosque of Aya Sophia is indicated by its four massive minarets,



A TURKISH
CEMETERY.

Close to the venerable cathedral is the graceful, six-minareted mosque of Sultan Achmet. The voyage is not done until the steamer has rounded the point and pushed its way into what is the very heart of the city.

Seated upon two continents and two seas, Constantinople is most unlike Venice in situation and appearance, and yet it resembles Venice in its watery ways. The Bosphorus and the deep, narrow, crescent bay of the Golden Horn are its main thoroughfares. They serve rather to unite than to separate the opposite banks. In the municipal territory are included not only the main triangular peninsula, which projects between the Golden Horn and the Marmora and which is now called Stamboul, but both shores of the Bosphorus from the Marmora to the Black sea and the tiny archipelago of the Princes' Islands. As now used the word Constantinople is an elastic term, including the entire group of cities and villages on and immediately adjacent to the Thracian Bosphorus.

Constantinople
resembles Venice.



Even after the anchor has been cast and it is possible to go on shore, one does well before disembarking to linger for a few moments upon the deck. It is not merely that first impressions never come but once. The deck affords the most favorable vantage-ground for grasping the relations of the different city quarters in one comprehensive sweep. A fanciful resemblance is sometimes traced between the harbor here and upper New York bay between Brooklyn and Jersey City south of Manhattan. Here, however, the shores are less far apart, rise more abruptly

CONSTANTINE
THE GREAT.
(From Grosvenor's
"Constantinople.")

from the water and to a greater height, and are crowded by edifices and funereal forests that would be strangely out of keeping with the west.

On the hill to the north rises an enormous white, circular tower which

**THE PALACE OF
DOLMA BAGETCHEH.**



Galata Tower.

is crowned with a sort of clumsy, many-windowed cone, and dwarfs by its bulk the houses packed around its base. That is Galata Tower. It indicates the farthest limit of the medieval Genoese city of Galata, and now stands as a sort of sentinel in the very midst of the European population which has clustered about and beyond it. On the southwest rises another tower, more slender, more elegant, but no less lofty, surmounted by a great bulging top. That is the tower of the Seraskier or minister of war. It overlooks the esplanade of the parade ground and is a prominent architectural feature in cosmopolitan Stamboul. On the east, on the farther side of the Bosphorus, upon the summit of the hill, no matter what the season of the year, the eye is arrested by a prodigious unbroken mass of green. That is the most extensive, most densely populated Mussulman cemetery in the world. The hundreds and thousands of gigantic cypresses, which loom above the graves and grow close against one another, give it its somber and perennial hue. The creaking, melancholy forest seems itself a type of Asiatic Scutari. These three, the towers and the cemetery, are dominating landmarks. Their relative position kept in mind, one cannot lose oneself even in the crooked paths and streets which seem designed mainly to confuse.

**Mussulman
cemetery.**

**THE FORTRESS OF
ROUMELI HISSAR.**

(From Grosvener's
"Constantinople.")

One may well linger upon the deck to drink in the magic of the scene. Most fortunate is the tourist who is privileged to arrive in the harbor at daybreak, just as the rising sun is tinting the roofs and minarets of the capital. The good fortune of him who steams out of the harbor at sunset is hardly less. The features of the varied landscape are in one sense always the same, but its beauty is enhanced many fold at sunrise and sunset. Such spectacles cannot be described, no matter how often one has beheld them. One can only gaze upon



brance into adequate words. Moreover, all this vision of scenic loveliness is pervaded by classic and historic and romantic associations sufficient to cause a thrill in the heart of the most sluggish and phlegmatic.

Constantinople is one in that quadrilateral of cities which more than all others have shaped the world's faith, guided its thought, and determined its destinies. In early times it was surpassed or rivaled in importance only by Jerusalem, the fountain of religion, Athens, the mother of civilization, and Rome, the teacher of government and law. After those sister urban stars had set or been eclipsed, Constantinople shone with undimmed luster through the middle ages. For centuries it was the foremost city of the world, superior to every other in populousness, strength, and beauty, and in the high development of its social and public life. Through its troubled history of 2,600 years it has been inferior to none in dramatic interest.

Constantin
ancient rer

To the Moslem it is one of the four holy places, named with Mecca, Medina, and Jerusalem. From the Christian it demands peculiar reverence. It is the first city distinctively Christian erected by the first Christian emperor on the ruins of vanquished paganism. Here almost in

The first Cl
city.

sight of the dome of Sancta Sophia the undivided church wrought out its theology by its ecumenical councils. Here preached that galaxy of pulpit orators, the Gregorians and Chrisostoms, who in pulpit eloquence have been succeeded by few equals and no superiors. Here were developed the first principles of



TOWERS IN
LAND WALL

Byzantine art. Here was framed that marvelous Justinian code, which, however modified, has had so large a share in subsequent legislation. Here, in cloisters and libraries, were preserved the precious volumes and were trained the world-famous teachers to whom in their subsequent dispersion is commonly attributed that intellectual revival which we call the Renaissance. Here is still the chief seat of that venerable eastern communion, which alone of Christian churches uses no mere translation, crude and imperfect, of the gospels in its worship, but the vernacular of whose ritual is even now daily chanted in the very language in which the New Testament was inspired.

The foundation of Constantinople and its enthronement as the metropolis of the Roman empire was the achievement of Constantine the Great. It is the most convincing proof of his profound political sagacity. Says Dean Stanley, "No city chosen by the art of man has been so well chosen and so permanent."

Constantin
Great.

The site was strong, not only in immediate environment but by the easy defense of distant approaches. Food was abundant, cheap and easily procured. The most ancient epithet of the Bosphorus was the "fishy," because of the enormous shoals of fish which in spring and autumn packed its waters in periodic migration. The title golden, applied to the Golden Horn, was doubtless due to the wealth which the fishermen obtained from its waters. The Bosphorus had been the route of Jason in his voyage for

**THE PALACE OF
JUSTINIAN THE
GREAT.**



the Golden Fleece. So now, north, east, south, and west have no other equal route for their commingling commerce.

The romantic element was strong in Constantine as in every leader who has affected human destiny. The seven hills of Rome were not then better defined nor are they more distinct today than in wonderful coincidence are the seven hills upon the Marmora and the Golden Horn. No omen could have been more propitious. While old Rome lay upon the Tiber, a new Rome beckoned here.

Baptismal day.

The 11th of May, 330, was the baptismal day of the new metropolis now given to civilization and Christianity. The patriarch pronounced the blessing on the new name Nova Roma. Reverently the immense assembly bore the statue of Constantine to surmount the porphyry column in the forum. On the column were carved, both as prayer and dedication, the

following words,
"O Christ, Ruler
and Master of the
world, to Thee
have I consecrated
this obedient city
and this scepter
and power of Rome.
Guard it. Deliver it
from every harm."

**THE MOSQUE
OF SULTAN
MOHAMMED II.**

Among all the monuments, associated with Constantinople, the column holds a mournful preëminence. To-day it rises a spectral outline, desti-

tute of beauty, gaunt and somber, but linked in imperishable intimacy with its first emperor. In broken letters on its mutilated base may still be read that heart-wrung prayer of Constantine. Through all the



In the fifth century Theodosius II buttressed by towers and further pr stupendous quadruple line reached al Golden Horn to the Marmora. The m from thirty to forty feet deep. By an flooded or left dry at will. The thic from six to nineteen feet. It was fror equal distances, ten rods apart, rose or circular, projecting from and overc . Now those defenses are ruins, awf desolation and decay. In places the ground outside, and over the prostrate walls the plough may be driven where their founda- tions stood. In other places the moat still yawns in all its former depth, and the walls behind still soar in perfect preservation.

In the seventh century the fiery zeal of hitherto unchecked Islam hurled itself during a seven years' siege against Constantinople. That siege was the real crisis in the struggle between Islam and Christianity. Had Constantinople then fallen, the churches of Europe would have been blotted out as



had been the still stronger churches of Europe, perhaps even America and nated not by Christianity but by a diffe

It is a remarkable fact that from 33 succumbed to foreign attack. No other a record. She alone rose erect above This unequaled record is the highest superiority of her position and to the s

In 1203 civil dissensions called in the and her walls were carried by the Fr Crusade. Long afterward the Latins v empire never could regain all its teri population of the capital had shrunk to

Meanwhile the Ottomans were makir In 1453 a host of Moslem warriors, n itants of the beleaguered town, assailed of hopeless resistance came the final at iræ of the East. The spot where

ing topography and in the work of destruction. Frequently devastating fires have been so frequent that on an average the entire city has been rebuilt from its foundations at least once in every fifty years.

It might seem almost strange that any creation of man could survive the repeated earthquakes and conflagrations. So it is natural that in western Europe and America there should be an erroneous impression that Constantinople possesses few memorials of the past, and that its chief and almost only charm is to be found in the picturesqueness of its situation and in its features of oriental life. Its bazaars, indeed, rival those of Cairo or Damascus. Its mosques are the most spacious and magnificent to be found anywhere in the domain of Islam. The palaces of its sultans are as luxurious as oriental extravagance and fancy have been able to erect. The wonder is that the city contains many precious monuments that are far older and that have come down in every form and degree of preservation.

The tourist, coming hither from the south or east, is already sated with turbans and flowing robes and oriental faces. The heterogeneous human mass, made up of a score of nations, and employing the jargon of a score of tongues, for a moment holds his curious attention as it flows in opposite directions across the bridges of Galata. The caiques and boats and barks of every description which dart across the Bosphorus and the Golden Horn blend in a shifting panorama which is always new.

One day the stranger will devote to the Bosphorus. In the early morn-



ing, embarking on one of those Turkish steamers which moor against the bridge, he will remain on board while it goes from landing-place to landing-place and at last approaches the entrance to the Black sea. No voyage, equally brief, can anywhere else yield equal delight. What of the day's excursion will remain most definitely painted in his memory it is impossible to say. But there are two pictures which he will not easily forget. One is the fortress of Roumeli Hissar with its long serrated walls and imposing towers, whence Sultan Mohammed II. marched against the last Byzantine emperor. The other is the stately mammoth form of Giant's mountain as it towers abruptly from the water and commands the strait. Yet there is a third picture still more memorable and more significant in its meaning. It is of the American college, overlooking the grim and dismantled fortress—the college, above which the American flag floats and from which American ideas radiate for the regeneration of the East.



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ING
THE

SANCTA SOPHIA.



The sultan at
prayer.

Another day—a Friday always—the stranger will join the throng which lines the road along which the sultan passes in solemn state from his palace to the mosque to offer his weekly prayer. Only death or absolute physical inability to discharge this duty absolves the sovereign from its performance. Whatever else in Constantinople is uncertain, this one thing is sure: the sultan at the appointed time will go to the mosque. Later in the day the tourist will do well to visit some palace on the Bosphorus and above all the Old Seraglio, on Seraglio Point, where the famous treasury of the sultans is guarded. But in entering the treasury let him be prepared for disappointment. The Arabian tales pall upon us as we grow older, and much of the old-time fabulous wealth of the treasury has vanished.

Some day he must take that ride, so impressive yet so melancholy, outside the ancient wall along Justinian's ruined Triumphal Way from the Golden Horn to the Marmora. On the landward side he passes one continuous cemetery wherein millions sleep. On the left he beholds the half-obliterated moat and the almost endless pile of solid masonry, which bade defiance to every foe and made Constantinople in the middle ages the best fortified city on the continent. Returning, let him dismiss his carriage after he has crossed the bridge. Then let him climb in Galata up the Yuksek Kalderim, the old Step street of the Genoese buccaneers



**THE EGYPTIAN
BAZAAR.**

(From Grosvenor's
"Constantinople.")

and bankers who terrorized the populace in the middle ages. At its top let him enter the tower of Galata and mount in the winding passage constructed in its wall, till from its very summit he revels in the marvelous view.

grotesque than the howling dervishes of Asiatic Scutari. That stay is incomplete which does not enable one to witness the peculiar and repellant religious observances of both. One may well visit Scutari, that one may enter the exquisite British cemetery wherein lie thousands of British soldiers, victims of the Crimean war. Just behind it is the hospital, consecrated by the unselfish labor of a woman, Florence Nightingale.

Stamboul is the city of mosques, more than five hundred, great and small, being included within its walls. In the years immediately after the conquest, each of the sultans erected several as acts of piety. That of Sultan Mohammed II., the Conqueror, is the most imposing and austere. That of Sultan Souleiman the Magnificent is the most grandiose and ornate. That of Sultan Achmet I. is airy, almost ethereal in its proportions, and vies with the Caaba of Mecca in the number of minarets. Each of the three is a Mussulman ecclesiastical type; Sultan Mohammed's of simplicity, Sultan Souleiman's of elegance, Sultan Achmet's of grace.

Stamboul a city of mosques.

In the Constantinople of the Byzantine emperors every hill and square was crowned with an imperial column. The pedestals and broken shafts peer above ground here and there. In the dreary waste of the At-meidan, which occupies the site of the hippodrome and lies west of the mosque-yard of Sultan Achmet, three still remain. One is an obelisk, brought from Egypt by Constantine himself and raised to position by Theodosius the Great. On its pedestal may still be seen the battered faces of Theodosius, his wife and children; also representations of the games which once took place in the open space around. Another is a shaft of cubic stones, and was formerly sheathed in brass. A ruin though erect, it seems to threaten a speedy fall. So perfect is its construction, so exact its center of gravity, that though the earthquake has often convulsed the At-meidan it has not been shaken down. Between the obelisk and the built column is the headless, brazen serpent of Delphi. There is no more precious relic of classic antiquity in existence. Cast by the Greeks at the close of the Persian wars as a thank-offering to the god Apollo, it was set up at Delphi in his most sacred shrine. Constantine brought it hither and placed it on its marble base to mark the exact center of the hippodrome. Still discernible on its lower coils are the names of the immortal Greek cities which vanquished Mardonius at the battle of Plataea. The letters were cut in the brass no later than four hundred and seventy-six years before Christ, and have thus perpetuated almost two thousand four hundred years the triumph over Persia of European civilization and of Greece. Still farther west stands the porphyry column of Constantine the Great, blackened and rent by the frequent fires which have raged around it, its fragments held together by great iron bands.

Monuments of the Constantinian era are the cisterns, vast subterranean



EPHESIAN COLUMNS
IN SANCTA
SOPHIA.

Brazen serpent of
Delphi.

of whitewash conceal its priceless mosaics. Its untold wealth of gold and silver ornamentation was stripped from it long ago. It has been worn by the feet and dimmed by the dust of countless throngs of worshippers through more than thirteen hundred and fifty years. And yet, dark and dingy and disfigured by conquest and time, the mere shadow or skeleton of what it was in its early splendor, it is still—in the words of Fergusson, that high authority on architecture and art—"the most perfect and most beautiful church which has yet been erected by any Christian people." The German Lübke calls it, "the highest model of all future ages." So, when the stranger departs from the Queen City of the East, let Sancta Sophia dominate all his other memories.



1. Describe the three routes to Constantinople. 2. What associations are recalled by Lemnos, the Thracian Chersonesus, Troy, the Hellespont, Granicus, Egeus Potamos, and Lybissas? 3. What promontory lies directly opposite Stamboul? 4. What building marks the site of old Byzantium? 5. What mosque of later associations stands near it? 6. What territory is at present included under the name Constantinople? 7. What famous cemetery lies on the east side of the Bosphorus? 8. What two other striking landmarks stand out as we approach the city from the south? 9. What important place does Constantinople occupy in the history of the world's greatest cities? 10. What does it signify to the Moslem? 11. What associations has it for Christians? 12. What ruler laid the foundations of the city's greatness? 13. What commercial and strategic advantages had the city? 14. In what respects did Constantinople resemble Rome? 15. What monument still recalls the dedication of the city to Christianity? 16. What bulwarks were erected by Theodosius II., and when? 17. What was the significance of the siege of the city in the seventh century? 18. What splendid record of stability did the city make between 330 and 1453? 19. When did Constantinople first succumb to a foreigner, and why? 20. What was the cause of its final fall, and when? 21. How have the Turks modified the name of the city? 22. Why has Constantinople been exempt from siege in the centuries which have followed? 23. What problem does the city offer to modern diplomacy? 24. Why are there so few remains of the older civilizations of the city? 25. What three periods comprise its history? 26. Describe the sights of a trip along the Bosphorus. 27. What weekly devotional service is performed by the sultan? 28. What object of interest is found on Seraglio point? 29. Describe the ride outside the ancient wall. 30. What interest has Galata? 31. What historic associations cluster about Scutari? 32. How many mosques are to be found in Stamboul? What are the most important? 33. What remains of the old Byzantine hippodrome still exist? 34. Describe the great underground cisterns. 35. What famous objects discovered at Sidon are in the Imperial Museum? 36. Describe the mosque of St. Sophia.

Review Questions.

1. What famous general planned treason at Byzantium? 2. What cities have at different times claimed the horses of St. Mark now at Venice? 3. How did the Turkish flag get its symbol of star and crescent? 4. What is the origin of the word Byzantium? 5. Ottoman? 6. Who were the "blues" and "greens" of the Byzantine empire? 7. What is the Nicene Creed? 8. What European rulers were contemporary with Haroun al Raschid?

Search Questions.

Constantinople. Edwin A. Grosvenor (2 vols. Revised edition, Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1900). This is the recognized authority and by far the most important work on the city. Comprehensive, impartial and admirably written, it is equally fascinating to the general reader and valuable to the scholar. Enriched with several hundred fine illustrations. Says the *Saturday Review*, London, "We doubt if anything approaching this exhaustive description has been published in any tongue." **Handbook for Constantinople, Brusa, and the Troad.** Sir C. W. Wilson (London: John Murray, 1893). A convenient guide-book. **Ancient and Modern Constantinople.** Translated from the Greek of the Ecumenical Patriarch Constantios I. by John P. Brown, secretary of the American legation at the Sublime Porte. (Stevens Brothers, London, 1868.) Very valuable but now rare. **Byzantine Constantinople.** A. van Millingen (London, 1899). A scholarly description of the walls and adjoining historical sites. **Constantinople.** Francis Marion Crawford. A brief but delightful and picturesque dissertation upon the city of today. **Life on the Bosphorus.** W. J. J. Spry (London, 1895). Profusely illustrated, popular and interesting. **Constantinople.** Translated from the Italian of Edmondo de Amicis. Brilliantly written, but unreliable and inaccurate. **Along the Bosphorus.** Mrs. Susan E. Wallace. Charming and graphic sketches. **The Prince of India.** General Lew Wallace. This splendid historical romance is remarkable for its vivid and accurate reproduction of Constantinople and its people at the time of the Ottoman conquest. **Constantinople.** Brodrick and Besant (London, 1879). A condensed sketch of the city until its capture by the Ottoman Turks. **The Byzantine Empire.** C. W. C. Oman, *Turkey.* Stanley Lane-Poole. Both of these excellent volumes are found in the "Story of the Nations" series. Gibbon's *History of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*, especially chapters XVII., LX., and LXVIII. Articles on Constantinople and the Turkish Empire by Edwin A. Grosvenor in Johnson's *Universal Cyclopædia* (editions of 1893-95 and 1900).

Bibliography.

CRITICAL STUDIES IN FRENCH LITERATURE.*

VI. THE SHORT STORY IN FRANCE.

BY WALTER T. PEIRCE.



HE literature which for a century has stood at the front in the production of the novel has given us three short-story¹ writers: Prosper Mérimée, Alphonse Daudet, and Guy de Maupassant. In Daudet's case, his fame as a story-teller is overshadowed by his fame as a novelist; but the renown of the other two rests on the base of the short story alone.

Of De Maupassant it is not our purpose here to treat. In point of technique he perhaps more nearly attains perfection than the other two, uniting with a Greek sense of form a French brilliance of style; but the matter in which he deals is too highly seasoned with Gallic salt to be acceptable to the Anglo-Saxon palate. For this reason out of the twelve volumes of his stories Mr. Sturges selects a bare thirteen which lend themselves to translation;² but these thirteen are exquisite bits of work.

Mérimée.

De Maupassant began work late and died young; from his first published work to his death it was but twelve years. Mérimée, on the other hand, lived to be sixty-seven, and the period of his literary activity covers forty-five years. Yet the work he has left us has not half the bulk of that of the younger author. A handful of little plays, two tales that may be called novellettes, but by no means novels, and a dozen or more short stories—that is all. But by virtue of these masterpieces in miniature he takes his rank with great story-tellers from Boccaccio to Kipling.

Mérimée's longest stories, and possibly his best, are "Colomba" and "Carmen," the latter well known in this country by reason of the opera and play drawn from it. But these tales, while extremely condensed in the telling, are novellettes rather than short stories, and we will consider as a type of the latter the story of "Mateo Falcone."

Lest some readers should be revolted by the theme of this tale, let me say that Mérimée usually lays his scenes in countries where civilization has done little to curb the natural instincts of the people, where beneath a thin veneer goes on the clash of primitive passions. The gypsies and smugglers of Spain, the bandits of Corsica, the conspirators of medieval Moscow, the assassins of St. Bartholomew, the insurgent peasants of the war of La Jacquerie, the African slavers, the atrocious grandes of old New Spain—such is the chosen company of Mérimée.

Outline of the story.

The scene of "Mateo Falcone" is laid in Corsica, which is also "Colomba's" native island. Mateo is an excellent shot, a stanch friend and a dangerous enemy, with very few murders on his conscience, and withal so tender hearted that he never kills a mountain goat if she has kids. Mateo and his wife, Giuseppa, have one son, Fortunato: one day when this boy is about ten years old, his father and mother go to a distant



¹ "The more carefully we study the history of fiction the more clearly we perceive that the novel and the short story are essentially different—that the difference between them is not one of mere length only, but is fundamental. The short story seeks one set of effects in a wholly distinct way. We are led, also, to the conclusion that the short story—in spite of the fact that in our language it has no name of its own—is one of the few sharply defined literary forms. It is as distinct an entity as the epic, as tragedy, as comedy."—*Brander Matthews*.

² "The Odd Number." Translated by Jonathan Sturges.

* No. 1, "The Song of Roland," appeared in the October CHAUTAUQUAN; No. 2, "Montaigne and Essay Writing in France," in the November CHAUTAUQUAN; No. 3, "Tartuffe: a Typical Comedy of Molière," in the December CHAUTAUQUAN; No. 4, "Lyrics and Lyrics of Old France," in the January CHAUTAUQUAN; No. 5, Hugo's "Ninety-Three," in the February CHAUTAUQUAN.

sun, is aroused by the sound of shots, and soon a wounded bandit comes in. He is pursued by the *gendarmes*, and demands asylum of Fortunato. The child pretends to hesitate from fear of his father, but at last demands a bribe for concealing him. The bandit gives him five francs, and the boy hides him in a heap of hay near the house. He even puts a cat and her kittens on top of the hay, and covers the blood spots with dust. Then he lies down in the sun and awaits the coming of the *gendarmes*.

Concealing
bandit.

They soon arrive, headed by an adjutant, a cousin of Mateo's.

"Good day, little cousin. Did you see a man pass just now?"

"Did I see a man pass?"

"Yes, a man with a peaked cap of black velvet, and a vest embroidered in red and yellow."

"A man with a peaked cap, and a vest embroidered in red and yellow?"

"Yes, answer quickly, and do not repeat my questions."

"This morning the priest passed before our door, on his horse *Piavo*. He asked me how papa was and I told him—"

And so forth. Fortunato keeps the adjutant at arm's length with his jesting, and finally goes to lie down on the heap of hay, advising his cousin to remember that he is dealing with Mateo Falcone's house and son. The house is searched, but reveals nothing. Baffled, they are about to leave when Gamba bethinks himself of bribery. He holds out to the child a silver watch at the end of a chain. Fortunato does not take it, but his eyes take the expression of a cat to which one has offered a chicken.

"Why do you tease me?"

"Per Dio! I am not teasing you. Tell me where Giannetto is, and the watch is yours."

Speaking thus, he brought the watch still closer, till it almost touched the child's pale cheek. The latter showed in his face that his soul was torn between covetousness and the respect due to hospitality. His bare breast heaved, and he seemed almost stifled. Meanwhile the watch swung, turned, and sometimes struck his nose. Finally, little by little, his right hand was raised toward the watch; his fingers touched it, and he weighed it in his hand. The face of the watch was blue—the case newly polished—in the sun it seemed to be on fire. The temptation was too strong. He raised his left hand and pointed with his thumb, over his shoulder, at the heap of hay against which he was leaning. The adjutant understood.

The bandit is dragged forth and bound, and preparations are made for leaving. At this juncture Mateo and his wife appear, and learn the state of affairs. They have little to say, even the bound Giannetto from his litter spits upon the doorsill, saying: "House of a traitor!"

Capture of
bandit.

When the procession is gone, Mateo is silent for some time. His son commences to make his peace, when his mother sees the end of the watch-chain hanging out of his shirt. They understand. The father throws his gun across his shoulder and starts for the woods, ordering his son to follow. Giuseppa, realizing the futility of words, returns to the cabin to pray.

Meanwhile Falcone walked some two hundred steps along the path, and stopped in a little ravine. He sounded the ground with the butt of his gun and found it soft and easy to dig. The spot seemed suitable for his plan.

"Fortunato, go over to that big stone."

The child did as he was ordered, then fell on his knees.

"Say your prayers."

"Father, father, do not kill me."

"Say your prayers."

The child, stammering and sobbing, recited the Pater and the Credo. The father responded Amen loudly after each prayer.

"Are those all the prayers you know?"

"I know also the Ave Maria and the litany my aunt taught me."

"It is long, but no matter."

The child finished the litany in a faint voice.

"Have you finished?"

"Oh, father, mercy. Forgive me. I will never do it again."

He was still speaking; Mateo had cocked his gun and was taking aim, saying, "May God pardon you." The child made a desperate effort to rise and embrace his father's knees; but he had no time. Mateo fired, and Fortunato fell dead.

Without glancing at the corpse Mateo went back to the house for a spade with which to

bury his son. He had made only a few steps when he met Giuseppa, alarmed at the sound of the firing.

"What have you done?" she cried.

"Justice."

"Where is he?"

"In the ravine. I am going to bury him. He had a Christian death. I will have mass said for him.—Send for my son-in-law Tiodoro Bianchi to come and live with us."

Alphonse Daudet.

Late in the sixties Alphonse Daudet, a young Provençal lately come to Paris, little-known author of one novel, and employed on the *Temps*, retired to his native Provence for a brief season, and sent back to his paper weekly sketches for the *feuilleton*. Down in Provence, near Nîmes, he took up his quarters in one of the old windmills formerly so common there, and from this retreat came the sketches, stories and fantasies, now known as the "Letters from My Mill." The pathos of "Jack," the epic power of "Kings in Exile," the keen satire of "Tartarin" and "Numa Roumestan," or the grim realism of "The Nabob" and "Sappho" may have caused some persons to forget the slight grace of these early pictures; but there will always be others who will love Daudet best for them, and for the little dramas of the Prussian war which followed in the "Monday Tales."

Scene of his stories.

Most of these stories, and all of the best of them, have their scenes in Provence, and are

" full of the warm south,
Dance, and Provençal song, and sunburnt mirth."

Some are merely sketches, not stories at all, as "Aged Folk" and "The Poet Minstral;" some are flashes of lurid drama, as "The Beaucaire Diligence," "The Two Inns," and "The Arlesian Girl;" some are simply stories of Provençal country life, "The Secret of Maître Cornille;" some are tales of grotesque fantasy, "The Curé of Cucugnan" and "The Elixir of the Reverend Père Gaucher;" some are exquisite poetic fancy, "M. Séguin's Goat," "The Stars" and "The Sub-prefect in the Fields;" and some, perhaps the best of all, are drawn from the Provence of the troubadours' times, "The Three Low Masses," and "The Pope's Mule."

As examples of his different styles, we will take up first "The Stars," and afterward "The Pope's Mule," a longer and more elaborate one.

The story of "The Stars."

It is a Provençal shepherd who tells the story of "The Stars." High up on Mount Luberon he lives with his flock, alone, save when once in two weeks the farm-boy or the old Aunt Norade brings him provisions and gossip from the farm in the valley. All news from the farm was welcome, but especially that which concerned Stéphanette, his master's daughter. "What difference could that make to me, me, a poor shepherd of the mountain? I answer that I was twenty years old, and that Stéphanette was the prettiest thing I had ever seen in all my life."

Shepherd and maid.

But one Sunday the provisions came very late. At noon, there was a great storm; but at three o'clock, the sky being washed clean, the mountain glistening with water and sun, he hears amid the dripping of the leaves and the rush of swollen streams, the tinkling of the mule bells, as gay, as lively as an Easter carol. But it is not the little farm-boy nor yet old Norade; it is—guess who?—it is the demoiselle in person, all pink with the mountain air and the coolness of the storm.

"So you live here, my poor shepherd? How tiresome it must be to be always alone. What do you do? What do you think about?"

I wanted to answer: "Of you, mistress," and I would not have lied; but I could find not a word to say. I think she saw my trouble, for she went on:

"And your sweetheart, shepherd, does she come up to see you sometimes? Surely she must be the fairy Esterelle, who runs on the tops of the mountains."

And she herself had the air of the fairy Esterelle, with her pretty laugh, her head thrown back, and her haste to be gone.

"Adieu, shepherd."

"Good bye, mistress."

And she is gone. But when the sheep begin to press into the close and

the valleys to veil themselves in blue, back comes my lady, no longer jaunty as before, but frightened, cold, and wet. She has been almost drowned in a stream, and going home is not to be thought of till morning.

A night with the stars.

Night has come. The shepherd builds a great fire, and his mistress dries her clothes by it; then she retires to the hut for the night, while he stays by the fire. But she can not sleep; the sheep frighten her by pressing too close; and by and by my demoiselle Stéphanette creeps out and sits down by the fire, wrapped in the shepherd's cloak. And side by side they pass the night under the stars.

"How many of them there are. I never saw so many—do you know their names, shepherd?"

"Oh yes, mistress—see. Just above us is St. James' Road (the milky way). It goes from France straight into Spain. St. James of Galicia traced it to show the way to the brave Charlemagne. Farther away, there is the Chariot of Souls (the great bear) with its four glittering axles. And lower down are the Three Kings (Orion).—But the most beautiful of all the stars, mistress, is our own, The Star of the Shepherds, which lights us at dawn when we lead out the flock, and again at night when we bring it back. We call her also Maguelonne, the fair Maguelonne who runs after Peter of Provence (Sirius) and every seven years marries him."

"How, shepherd! There are marriages among the stars?"

"Oh, yes, mistress."

And as I was trying to explain what these marriages were, I felt something cool and soft weigh lightly on my shoulder. It was her sleepy head which rested against me with a little rustling of ribbons, lace, and wavy hair. She remained so without stirring until the stars began to pale in the rising dawn. I watched her sleep, troubled a little in the depth of my being, but protected by that clear night which has never given any but beautiful thoughts. Around us, the stars continued their silent march, gentle as a great flock; and at moments I imagined that one of these stars, the finest, the most brilliant, having lost its way, had come to rest upon my shoulder to sleep.

The story of "The Pope's Mule" has its origin in an old Provençal saying: "*La mule du pape garde son coup-de-pied sept ans.*" This is usually taken to mean: "The pope's slipper keeps its instep seven years." But by a double meaning in two of the words, it may also read: "The pope's mule saves its kick for seven years," and it is this meaning that Daudet has whimsically chosen to weave his story about. The pope in question is a certain Boniface, and the scene is Avignon, in the time of the great schism of the fourteenth century.

"The Pope's Mule."

This pope is a good old soul with but two weaknesses: his vineyard and his mule. On pleasant evenings he would mount his mule and ride out to the vineyard, followed by his courtiers. There he would sit and drink his ruby-colored Chateau-Neuf des Papes, and then, in the twilight, ride back to the city over the bridge of Avignon, "where every one dances round and round."

Now, such was the pope's love for his mule, that to praise her was sufficient passport to his favor; and this knew Tistet Védène, a certain ne'er-do-well of Avignon. This Tistet would approach his Holiness, and, clasping his hands in admiration, would say:

"Ah, mon Dieu! Great Holy Father, what a fine mule you have there. Just let me look at her a little. Ah, pope, what a beautiful mule. The emperor of Germany has not such a one."

Then, addressing the mule:

"Come here, my jewel, my treasure, my pearl."

And the good pope would say to himself:

"What a good little fellow. And how nice to my mule."

And the upshot of it was that Tistet Védène entered the service of the pope, and was appointed to carry the bowl of wine, spiced, sweetened and steaming, which was the mule's daily portion. Which was all very fine for Tistet. Not so for the mule. The young scapegrace would invite the choir boys out to the stable, and there under the mule's very nose, they drank her wine. Nor was that all; they played her the basest tricks; they pulled her tail and her ears, and tried their caps on her head. And once—the villainy of it—once they coaxed her up into the tower of the

The mule in the tower.

palace, and there, the next morning, in the sight of two hundred thousand Provençaux, stood the mule, on the platform at the very top.

It was Tistet Védène who wept and tore his hair at this sight.

"Ah, great Holy Father, see your mule. Mon Dieu! What will become of us? Your mule has gone up into the tower—"

"All alone!"

"Yes, great Holy Father, all alone. Do you see the tips of her ears up there, like two swallows?"

It was necessary in the end to lower the poor animal with cranes and pulleys, and no one was busier at this than Tistet. The mule as she swung in the air, made a vow that if ever again he got behind her—well, from far Pampérigouste they should see the dust of that kick. But before the next morning Tistet Védène was on his way to Naples to the court of Queen Joanna, there to learn diplomacy and fine manners. This as a reward for his activity in rescuing the mule.

Planning for
revenge.

And the disappointment of the latter in the morning. "Ah, the bandit! He suspected something. But never mind; you'll find that kick when you get back—I'll save it for you." And she saved it.

Now her life resumed its old tranquillity. But it was not quite the same; people would smile when they met her, and point to the tower. And the pope himself had hardly the same confidence in her. The mule noticed, but said nothing; only whenever she heard the name of Tistet Védène her ears twitched, and she laughed silently as she sharpened her shoes on the pavement.

Seven years of
waiting.

Seven years passed; Tistet returned from Naples to assume the position of first mustardbearer to the pope. The day of ordination was appointed, all preparations for the ceremony made and—the mule spent the night before practising on the wall; she too was preparing for a ceremony.

The day came; Tistet appeared, blond and smiling, in a Provençal jacket and with an ibis feather in his cap; but on his way to receive the insignia of office he stopped to pat the mule, watching out of one corner of his eye to see if the pope was looking. The position was good—she drew herself together—

Satisfaction at last.

"There. I have you, bandit. I've been saving this up for you for seven years."

And she gave him a kick so terrible, so terrible, that from far Pampérigouste they saw the dust, a whirlwind of blond dust, in the midst of which twirled an ibis feather; all that was left of the unfortunate Tistet Védène.

Mules' kicks are not always so annihilating; but this was a papal mule; and then, think, she had saved it up for seven years.—I know of no better example of ecclesiastical rancor.

THE INNER LIFE OF ODYSSEUS.*

✠ ✠ BY HAROLD N. FOWLER. ✠ ✠

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ODYSSEUS was, according to the Homeric poems, the ruling chief of the island of Ithaca. The dates of his birth and death cannot be given, nor can any details of his childhood or early life be narrated. In fact, we cannot be quite sure that he ever existed at all; for all our information concerning him is based upon the Homeric poems, and it is difficult to tell how far these are to be regarded as historical documents. Not many years ago it was customary to consider the Homeric poems almost absolutely unhistorical, and to think of

*This is the sixth CHAUTAUQUAN study of the Inner Life of Historic Figures in France and Greece. Fénelon, by Charles M. Stuart, appeared in October; Pascal, by Naphthali Luccock, appeared in November; Madame Guyon, by Jesse L. Hurlbut, appeared in December; Corot, by Adelia A. Field Johnston, appeared in January; The Chevalier Bayard, by Vincent Van Marter Beede, appeared in February.

the heroes mentioned in them as mere creations of a poet's imagination; but the discoveries of the late Dr. Schliemann and others have proved that there was in Greece and some of the neighboring regions at a time before 1000 B. C. a civilization strikingly resembling that described in the Homeric poems, and that we have every reason to believe that the Homeric poems, far removed as they are from being accurate historical narratives, are nevertheless ultimately based on fact.

A semi-historical character.

In somewhat the same way the medieval stories of Charlemagne and his knights, Roland, Rinaldo, and the rest, are based on facts, for we know that Charlemagne really existed and performed many great deeds, but the stories themselves are far from being accurate history. The Roland who was killed at Roncesvalles was a real man, but the adventures of the Roland who was enamored of Angelica and traveled over all the known world and many fabulous regions performing wonderful deeds of heroism are not historical, nor is the hero of these adventures any more historical than if no man named Roland had ever drawn his sword in Charlemagne's service and lost his life at Roncesvalles. And yet the legendary Roland has a definite character. He is always courageous, always truthful, always ready to help a lady in distress; and in addition to these traits, which he has in common with the other heroes of the medieval tales, he has a violent temper, which tends to turn his courage into rashness, and a self-confidence, which makes his boldness overbold. Moreover, we can see by his actions, and we are told by the poets, that he was a sincere and faithful believer in Christianity, while his superstitious belief in sorcery and all kinds of magic is evident. None of these qualities is, however, to be ascribed to the historical Roland, of whom next to nothing is known. They belong to the legendary character as he was created by the medieval poets,—poets who lived many years, if not centuries, after the death of the historical personage whose name they made so great. But if the qualities of the legendary Roland do not belong to the historical Roland, have they any historical value or any interest for us? Certainly they have; for Roland is one of the ideal heroes of the middle ages, and his qualities are those which the medieval poets chose to give to such a hero. From a study of Roland we can learn, not what the qualities of a baron of France in the time of Charlemagne really were, but what the poets of a later period thought they were and thought they ought to have been. Roland, with all his individuality, may be regarded as a type, but not as a type of the real men of the time of Charlemagne. He is a type of the ideal men of a century or two after Charlemagne, and as such he is an interesting study, for the ideal men of any age are likely to be such as the real men of that time would be if they could.

Similar medieval stories based on fact.

Roland both a historical and a legendary character.

As in the case of Roland, so in that of Odysseus, we can study the mental and moral qualities, the thoughts, beliefs, and motives disclosed by his conduct and by what the poet tells us of him, but we must study them as characteristic of a type, of an ideal, not a real person, and we must regard them as belonging not to a man of the period to which Odysseus, if he ever lived, really belonged, but rather to a man of the time to which the Homeric poems must be assigned, not far from 800 B. C. With this understanding we may study the character and the inner life of Odysseus with interest and profit.

Odysseus a type.

Of his early life little is recorded. He was the son of Laertes, chief of Ithaca, and his wife Anticleia. As a youth he must have been brave and vigorous, for we are told that he distinguished himself in a boar hunt when he was visiting his grandfather Autolycus. He was still a comparatively young man, though his father had already retired from the government and put him in charge of affairs at Ithaca, when he was called to lead the Ithacan contingent to the Trojan war. At Troy he distinguished himself for valor, and especially for wisdom in counsel and craft in strategy, and was the personal favorite of Athena, the goddess

Early life of Odysseus.

of our information, for Odysseus, who is only one of the chief heroes of the "Iliad," is the central figure of the "Odyssey." Here he is constantly before us as the "resourceful," the "much-enduring," the "man of many wiles," whose courage, endurance, and craft triumph, with the aid of Athena, over all obstacles and all opponents.

Character of
Athena.

The character of Athena and her relation to Odysseus throw some light upon the religious beliefs of the time. Athena is no better and no worse than Odysseus himself. Nowhere does she disclose any moral qualities greater than those of men. She is more powerful than any human being, and she is able to move at will from place to place and to assume any form she chooses, but she accomplishes her purposes not by the mere exercise of divine will, but by physical force or by deceit. She is loyal to Odysseus, whom she has taken under her protection, apparently because he displays the same qualities for which she is herself distinguished, but her kindness to him has the character rather of personal friendship than of divine benevolence called forth by any moral excellence on his part. She pleads his cause in the assembly of the gods, and bespeaks the favor of Zeus for him on the ground that he had prayed to Zeus at Troy, but not on the ground of good works, exceptional faith in the gods, or moral worth. When Poseidon is angry with Odysseus because he has put out the eye of Polyphemus, Poseidon's son, Athena refrains from helping her favorite until her powerful uncle is in some measure appeased. Poseidon's wrath, like Athena's friendship, is due to strictly personal reasons, such as move human beings, not to any considerations of right or justice.

Her relation to
Odysseus.

Conception of the
gods.

The gods are evidently to Odysseus hardly more than human beings of more than human power. They are propitiated by prayers and sacrifices, and there are also certain acts which they are supposed to approve, such as hospitality to strangers and kindness to beggars, "for in the charge of Zeus all strangers and beggars stand," but they do not see and judge men's souls. When they wish to help or hinder human action they do it, as men do, by external means. Once, to be sure, Odysseus says, "when wise Athena puts it in my mind, then will I nod my head," implying that the goddess has direct influence on the mind without recourse to any visible means; and on several occasions Athena sends visions to sleepers to influence their actions, but even then it is rather the goddess herself who visits the sleepers than a purely mental action on her part. The gods also disclose their intentions by the flight of birds and by other omens.

Relation of gods
and men.

The conception of the gods as differing only in some particulars from mortals makes it easy for men to appeal to them under all circumstances, with confidence that they will not be misunderstood, and we find Odysseus and others praying to the gods frequently and with apparent faith that their prayers will be heard. The gods are evidently regarded as near at hand and sympathetic. But, on the other hand, the inability to conceive of the gods as essentially different from and higher than men leads to a familiarity of treatment which savors of disrespect. The most striking instance of this in the "Odyssey" is the tale of the loves of Ares and Aphrodite told by the poet Demodocus and heard with pleasure by Odysseus and the assembled Phæacians; but elsewhere, too, even in the intercourse of Odysseus with his protecting deity, Athena, there is frequently what seems to us a lack of reverence. Yet sometimes we find a reverent attitude towards the gods which testifies to the beginnings of a higher conception of them. So when Telemachus urges his father to look for aid against the suitors, Odysseus says: "Nay, let me speak, and do you mark and listen. Consider if Athena, joined with father Zeus, suffice for us, or shall I seek for other aid?" And Telemachus is content with the assurance of divine assistance. "Excellent helpers," he replies, "are those two, seated high among the clouds, who rule all others, both

men and immortal gods." And when Odysseus and Telemachus are removing the armor from the hall, Athena gives them light for their work, which Telemachus notices. He calls his father's attention to the wonder, adding, "Surely some god is in the house, such as those that hold the open sky." And Odysseus replies, "Hush, and restrain your thoughts and ask no questions. This is the way of the gods who hold Olympus." Here is a touch of genuine reverence.

Thus, although there is as yet no real distinction in Odysseus's mind between the human and the divine nature, there is at least the beginning of reverent awe. The actual deeds and motives of the gods may not be different from those of men, but there is a vague consciousness that after all they belong to a higher sphere. When we, after nineteen centuries of Christianity have shaped our religious conceptions, look back at the conceptions of Odysseus, we find them crude and coarse; his gods appear as nothing more than men whom he treats as his equals, or as his superiors only in power. But if we compare the conceptions of Odysseus as disclosed in the "Odyssey" with those displayed in the "Iliad," we see that the Greek world was advancing, and that in the time between the composition of the greater part of the "Iliad" and that of the greater part of the "Odyssey" the gods had grown more dignified, less prone to quarreling among themselves, in general more idealized and more fit to be the objects of serious worship.¹

Gods rank higher than men.

Besides the gods "who hold Olympus," Odysseus, in common with all the pagan Greeks, knew many less important divinities. The mountain heights were peopled by woodland nymphs, who accompanied the goddess Artemis in the hunt, special nymphs delighted in special caves, each river had its god, the depths of the sea were inhabited by a host of divinities subject to the great sea-god Poseidon. All these were personifications of nature in her various forms, as, indeed, were the great gods themselves. To all of these, powers of good and ill were ascribed, but they differed from the great gods in being more limited in their sphere of action. They were worshiped with prayer and sacrifice, but their worship was confined to the places with which they were especially connected. Each of the great gods was omnipotent, except as none could oppose the will of Zeus or the decision of a council of the gods; but the nymphs, river-gods, and the like, were powerful only within comparatively narrow limits. Other superhuman beings also existed who owed their divinity to descent from one of the greater gods. Such was, for instance, Circe, the daughter of the sun-god, while Calypso, the other goddess with whom Odysseus lived, was the local nymph of a lonely island.

Many minor divinities.

Thus, for Odysseus the world was full of gods of different degrees of power, but all very human in their thoughts and feelings. They loved and favored those who worshiped them, but it was the offered or promised sacrifice, rather than the mental or moral attitude of the worshiper, which determined the conduct of the gods. It is only in exceptional cases that the gods punish a man for wrong-doing or reward him for doing right unless his misconduct or righteousness has been directed against themselves, as by the breaking of an oath on the one hand or the offering of a hecatomb on the other. These gods had therefore little direct influence for good or ill upon men's conduct, except as exercising a restraining force, especially through oaths, and by the protection they were supposed to grant to strangers and suppliants. Odysseus, like most of the Homeric chiefs, was kind and courteous, loyal to his friends, just and even generous, but these good qualities were not especially encouraged by the belief in the gods.

Human aspect of the gods.

If the gods do not in any other way urge men to righteousness, they might do so by a system of rewards and punishments after death. But Odysseus knew no such system. He was obliged to visit the abode of the dead to consult the prophet Teiresias about his voyage, and the

¹ See Professor Capps's "Homer to Theocritus," p. 109.

description of what he saw and heard there gives a clear idea of the gloomy and hopeless attitude of the early Greek mind toward the future life, just as Dante shows us the hopes and fears of medieval Christians.

Visit to the abode
of the dead.

To reach the home of the dead, Odysseus sails away to the dim and distant regions of the west, to the great stream of Ocean which encircles the earth. Here he performs sacrifices, offering a ram and a black ewe, whose blood runs into a trench dug in the sand. The spirits of the dead crowd about him, coming up from Erebus, to drink the blood. Here he is enabled to question them, and to answer the questions they ask. These spirits are mere forms, with no material bodies, powerless shapes. They have no knowledge of anything that has happened on earth since their own death, except what they may have learned from those who have come later from the upper world. Each spirit which holds converse with Odysseus asks him about friends and relatives not yet dead. In fact, the only interest they seem to feel is in things of the upper world; for the life they lead after death has nothing real or interesting in it. In a few cases, as that of Tityus, whose sin was a violent one against a powerful goddess, there is a special punishment, but in general there is merely a dead level of tedious, shadowy life. No hero in the Greek army at Troy had a better reputation than Achilles; none deserved a better fate in the world of the dead; and yet he finds no comfort there. When Odysseus says to him: "Than you, Achilles, no man was in former times more blessed, nor shall be hereafter; for formerly we Argives honored you like the gods, and now that you are here, you rule mightily among the dead; therefore do not grieve at death, Achilles," he replies, "Do not make light of death, glorious Odysseus. I would rather be on earth as the slave of another, of a poor man who has little livelihood, than rule over all the dead who have passed away."

Views of the future
life.

Rewards in the lower world for good lives on earth are not to be sought in the life hereafter. In exceptional cases, heroes may be exempt from death altogether, but such exemption is not a reward for goodness alone, but is due to special favor of the gods, as in the case of Menelaus, who was to pass to the Elysian field because he had Helen to wife and was the son-in-law of Zeus. Such views about the future life naturally made men turn their thoughts and energies to their earthly life. Whatever tended to temporal advantage was admissible and even laudable, so long as it involved no transgression against the gods. Earthly success made a man famous during life and even after death, but fame after death was valuable only in so far as the spirit in the lower world could hear of it and be pleased. To gain this end, that his shade might be admitted to the abode of the spirits, where it could meet the spirits of those who had died before him as well as of those who should die after him, it was necessary that the dead himself,—the body, that is, the real man as distinguished from his incorporeal spirit,—should meet with proper funeral rites. It was therefore an important duty for the surviving friends of any one who died to pay the last respects to the corpse and to offer funeral offerings. Just how the dead was benefited by offerings at the tomb is not made clear in the Homeric poems, but it is evident that the offerings were supposed to be of some use, and we are justified in assuming that libations and the blood of victims offered at the tomb were intended to pass down to the lower world, there to comfort the spirit.

End of
Required Reading.

With such views of the gods, of human life, and of death, it is natural that Odysseus should not be a man of the highest type of spiritual worth. That he was as excellent as we find him is due in part, to be sure, to his belief in the gods, but more to his innate moderation, to his respect for Themis, the impersonation of established right, before whose greatness both gods and men must bow.

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THE THINKING HABIT.

One of the best things that we get from the study of history is the habit of looking below the surface and seeing how the daily life of a people once influenced the life of their country, and how this in turn has affected the times in which we live. Our studies this year illustrate this fact in a very interesting way. We are far enough removed from the democracy of old Greece and the confused struggles of the French Revolution to see some of the elements of their success or of their failure. On the other hand, "The Rivalry of Nations" plunges us into present-day problems of which the real significance cannot be seen. Just at this point, however, some of us realize painfully that we cannot profit by the lessons of history unless we can remember enough of the main facts to give us a basis for thought, and here, alas, is our weak point. If we could but remember things, how agreeable and stimulating we might be both to ourselves and to others! Now, although most of us are people of only average ability, it is certainly our privilege to learn to use what we have in a way that will make life interesting, and Professor James in his "Talks to Teachers" seems to offer a clue when he says:

"The secret of a good memory is thus the secret of forming diverse and multiple associations with every fact we care to retain. But this forming associations with a fact, — what is it but thinking *about* the fact as much as possible?"

It is plain, then, that to plow deep "furrows in our brains" we must let our thoughts travel backwards and forwards over the same field many times, and perhaps we cannot start these trains of thought better than by trying to look at old facts in the

light of new ones. For instance, when we study the Greek theater, let us compare it with those with which we are familiar. What would most surprise Æschylus if he could attend a performance of "Hamlet"? Would Pericles's ideas of democratic government make him a good mayor for one of our cities? Is the nearest modern type of Socrates a minister, a college professor, a social settlement worker, or what? Are any statesmen of the Themistocles type in foreign politics today? Did Greek oligarchies resemble modern trusts in any way? Was there anything resembling our Balkan question in the days of the Persian wars? Let us try this plan, and see if it does not make some of the most far-away facts of history interesting and significant.



FROM THE PRESIDENT OF THE CLASS OF 1901.

*To the Fellow-members of the Class of 1901,
Cordial Greeting:*

We may wish each other not only a happy New Year, but a happy entrance into the twentieth century.

Our class, of all classes in the history of Chautauqua, has the honor of leading the procession into a new century. No other class has had that privilege. No other class of those living today will ever have that privilege. I doubt not that all of the comrades of our class are looking forward to next summer as the best season in the history of Chautauqua. Let us realize the honor and the influence of our position, and let each one raise the standard high, so that our "Twentieth Century Class" will be known by all who have preceded or who will follow, as leading in loyalty, in generosity, in good fellowship.

With a Pan-American Exposition close by, with a specially delightful "new century program" at Chautauqua, let us hope that every member of the Class of 1901 will march through the Golden Gate next August, and meet for a friendly hand-grasp in our own special room of the C. L. S. C., furnished and completed and without debt. Send in your gifts; if you are behind in the reading course, catch up now; make your plans to spend several weeks at dear old Chautauqua next summer. Sincerely yours,

WILLIAM SEAMAN BAINBRIDGE.



A HISTORIC CLUBHOUSE.

C. L. S. C. Alumni Hall at Chautauqua is a clubhouse of a unique character. At



ALUMNI HALL, SHOWING CLASS ROOM OF 1901.

present the home of no fewer than nineteen C. L. S. C. classes, each year it extends its friendly hospitality to one more; for the eight rooms into which the building is divided seem capable of almost indefinite expansion, and three classes dwell quite as harmoniously in one room as did two in the earlier days. The plan of the building was devised so as to distribute the expense through a number of years; the early classes therefore paid for the framework, the later ones for the interior finishing of the rooms, and the present classes are helping to finish the halls and banqueting room, add piazzas and other useful and attractive features. Probably no clubhouse on the planet represents the devoted gifts of so large a number of members, who, scattered as they are today in all parts of the world, look back to the delightful social

hours spent in its historic halls. Men and women whose names stand for leadership in the world's life have been welcomed as honored guests under the roof of Alumni Hall, and these associations will be further enriched during the coming years.

The proper completion and preservation of the building calls for a payment of three hundred and fifty dollars from each class, but as this amount may be paid during the five summers from the year of organization to the year of graduation, the amount is easily raised, and all that is necessary is a clear understanding of the need, and a little enthusiasm which is sure to grow as the class spirit develops. The Class of 1901 raised a goodly proportion of this fund in the summer of '97, additions have been made during the later summers and this year, when the class will be largely represented, the remainder can easily be secured, and the class graduate with the inspiring consciousness of worthy achievements. The following letter from the class secretary and treasurer will be read with interest by all:

Dear Friends, Members of "The Twentieth Century Class," we send you greeting:

How swiftly are we nearing the second notable date in our life, as members of the great living C. L. S. C.! It seems not so long ago since the first of our meetings took place at our room at Alumni Hall, where under the benign influence of Bishop Vincent and Miss Kimball we organized and named our-

selves, and joyfully turned our faces toward the new century.

It has been the privilege of a score of us, perhaps, to meet each succeeding year, but for you less fortunate ones who remember the class in its enthusiastic beginnings only, and the room so bare, unfinished and unfurnished, a brief description of it as it is today may be interesting.

The trustees used the funds placed in their hands by us at those early meetings with commendable promptness, and the result was a room beautifully plastered and finished in oak, wainscoted for about four feet in height, with a handsome oak mantel and fireplace, the latter the much-prized gift of a good friend of the class; notwithstanding which, and other generous gifts, a debt still rests between us and the trustees.

Gradually, however, suitable and graceful furniture has been put into place, dainty curtains, books and palms have added their charm; and last summer when over all was shed the soft brilliancy of the electric light, which had been put throughout Alumni Hall, we were jubilant indeed, and saw as a nearer vision our hope of making our room more than a class home in name merely, but something far more delightful and

personal, saw the fulfilling indeed of meeting-place for all "Twentieth members in which to read, study, or serves.

It is impossible to close this letter of the class banner which is nearing tion under the hands of skilled work City. The committee in charge, with gratulatory smiles, assure me that it is past achievements in "banner-art," giving incentive to the new classes still the new century. I cannot describe it handsome, suitable, emblematic, . . . What more need be said?

When we assemble at dear old Chaumer, we intend to call the roll of all those first happy meetings in 1897. fully successful occasion it will be, if answer in 1901! Hopefully yours,

MRS. MARCUS

Treasurer and Secretary of the C.



We are indebted to a graduate of the Class of '91, Mrs. Sarah M. Sland, California, who visited (1899, for the admirable picture of Alumni Hall herewith reproduced which the Class of 1901 shares of '93 is the first room on the right at the right of the entrance. It would not be a good plan for some composed largely of 1901's to bring delegates to graduate at this summer, to get up a closet, charge a small fee, and half of the proceeds to Alumni rest to some other fund in which the circle are interested?



THE CHAUTAUQUA VESPER SERVICE

More than twenty-five years ago the five o'clock hour on noon was set apart as the Vesper service, a special service was prepared



A VIEW OF ZURICH, SWITZERLAND
(From "Annals of Switzerland," by Julia M. Colt)

then this beautiful service with its historic hymn, "Day is Dying," has been held at scores of Churches

man connected with the cathedral of Spanish Town, and also headmaster of a graded school. The circle is starting its work with great enthusiasm, and it is hoped will give us in due time an account of its membership and activities.



MODEL OF MONUMENT OF
LYSICRATES.

CHICAGO AND ATHENS.

Many of our readers who visited the World's Fair in Chicago will recall a graceful little monument which stood close beside the Art Building. Possibly some of us may not have realized that this was a copy of one of the most famous monuments of old Greece. It

has especial interest for us this month because of our study of the Greek theater, for this beautiful building commemorates the victory of Lysicrates in 335 B. C. with his chorus of boys in one of the choral competitions held in the city of Dionysia. These choral competitions, though held during the same festival, were quite distinct from the dramatic competitions. There were two of them, one between choruses of boys, and one between choruses of men. There were ten choruses in all, each furnished by one of the ten tribes of Attica. So, though the expense of the chorus was borne by one man and the prized tripod awarded to him, the glory belonged equally to the tribe. The monument of Lysicrates has escaped destruction perhaps from the fortunate circumstance that it was built into a Capucin convent, where it remained until 1821, when the building was burned. Tradition says that Lord Byron, who stayed at the convent, used the monument for a study. The purpose of the monument was apparently simply to serve as a splendid pedestal for the tripod which was set within the floral ornament on top. The tripod has disappeared, but the monument is cherished today as one of the most precious treasures of Greece.

HOW TO LEARN GREEK MYTHOLOGY.

The characters and legends of Greek mythology form the background of so much Greek literature that an intimate acquaintance with them is of distinct advantage to the student of Greek life and letters. The game of "Greek Mythology" already mentioned presents in very convenient form for reference and for memorizing the names, attributes, and emblems of the different characters, with some mention of their most famous representations in art. A helpful feature of the game is the grouping of the characters according to their mythological affinities.

AN ANCIENT THEATER CHAIR.

In the Metropolitan Museum in New York, or in the Museum of Fine Arts in Boston may be seen a cast of the white marble chair once the privileged seat of the priest of Dionysus in the theater at Athens. The original chair as it stands today in the old theater, occupies a place at the middle point of the semi-circle of seats, on each one of which may still be seen the name of the dignitary to whom it belonged. The priest's chair is distinguished from the rest by its more elaborate design. On the back are carved two satyrs bearing bunches of grapes, and on each arm an exquisite little winged figure of a boy superintending a cock fight. The cock fight was, however, a more dignified occasion than with us, and in this case the figures are supposed to refer to the annual cock fight which was held at the theater in commemoration of the Persian wars. It is



CHAIR OF THE PRIEST OF DIONYSUS.

fortunate for us that during the vandalism of the middle ages the theater was buried so completely that even its location was lost. A coin in the British Museum finally cleared up the mystery, and in 1862 the excavators,

the light of day. Many of the best marble seats seem almost as perfect as were in the old days when the theatre crowded with an eager multitude and chorus sang their parts in the great of the orchestra.

"THE HUMAN NATURE CLUB."

In taking up the study of psychology Dr. Thorndike's direction, our readers not think of the theme as dry, abstractly speculative. Psychology is the study of the thoughts and feelings which are of the conscious life of every individual. The psychologist merely tries to find the laws and principles in these mental facts. It is a fascinating study. It deals with real life. It strikes deep into the problems of personal character and of social life. The widespread interest in psychological science is significant. All questions are regarded from the psychological point of view. There is a psychology of criminal conscience, of fashion, of crowds; in short, there is a psychology of all the forces which human thought and feeling partake. Indeed, there is a psychology of animals. Scholars are making studies of the social habits of animals—their influence upon each other. The field, then, of psychology is co-extensive with conscious life throughout all nature. It is a practical study, bearing upon life at every point. We are confident that our readers will be greatly stimulated by the suggestive little volume which Dr. Thorndike has prepared for

"Apathy can be overcome only by enthusiasm. Enthusiasm can only be aroused first by an ideal, which takes the imagination by storm, and second by a definite, intelligent plan for carrying that ideal into action." — *Arnold Toynbee*.

READING FOR READING'S SAKE.

This is a pitfall which is always likely to entrap any reader, however conscientious. We find that the members of "the human nature club" discovered that attention can be forced only for a short time. If it is not spontaneous, spurred on by our interest in the subject, it will soon flag. When this truth confronts you, rest yourself and renew your interest by a short excursion into the dictionary. Here are some words which we find our required reading this month. Who can read aloud, can we pronounce them without embarrassment? Have we really grown

Min'aret. From the Arabic. The accent on the first syllable will surprise some of us who have been in the habit of placing the accent at the end. The Century, Standard, and Webster, however, leave us no alternative, and we must accept this Arabic immigrant on its own terms. The old meaning of the word was lighthouse.



DAVID LIVINGSTONE.

THE STORY OF A GREAT LIFE.

"Then let us pray that come it may —
As come it will for a' that —
When man to man, the world o'er,
Shall brothers be for a' that." — *Burns*.

The study of African problems this month in the Rivalry articles recalls the life and work of that original genius and hero, David Livingstone. Few biographies possess greater charm than his. Many a boy has been inspired to the best development of his powers by reading the life of that other boy who began work in a factory at ten years of age, yet managed to continue his education so that before he was sixteen he read Virgil and Horace with ease, and delved into the book of nature on his own account. The story of Livingstone's life reads like a romance, yet struggle and disappointment and ill health often baffled him. In the early days of his African work in relieving distress among the natives, he wrote: "I know that if I gave much attention to medicine and medical studies, something like a sort of mania which seized me soon after I began the study of anatomy would increase and, I fear, would gain so much power over me as to make me perhaps a very good doctor but a useless drone of a missionary. I feel the

self-denial this requires very much, but it is the only real sacrifice I have been called on to make, and I shall try to make it willingly." Years after, when his painstaking scientific study of Africa had mapped out the hitherto unknown regions of the Dark Continent, and his personal charm as a Christian missionary had given him marvelous influence over the black races, Stanley wrote of him, "You may take any point in Dr. Livingstone's character and analyze it carefully and I will challenge any man to find fault with it." In the "English Men of Action Series," Thomas Hughes, the famous author of "Tom Brown," tells the story of Livingstone. The volume is small; one could almost read it through in a single Sunday afternoon. Those who do not know this little classic are reminded of the pleasure which awaits them.



"Only That which made us, meant us to be mightier
by and by
Set the sphere of all the boundless heavens within the
human eye.
Sent the shadow of Himself the boundless, thro' the
human soul;
Boundless inward, in the atom, boundless outward, in
the whole."
— *Tennyson*.



INDIVIDUAL READERS.

A member living in an isolated region in Maine writes when returning her memoranda: "If I fail to receive the required eighty per cent, the reward is in the doing, and I shall feel that I have done at least something in making the attempt. I am a solitary reader, lacking the stimulus of a circle, growing discouraged many times, yet Chautauqua has done me untold good, giving me an outlook upon a broader plane after the cares of a day spent in a country schoolroom."

Another teacher in a larger field of work graduated in the Class of '99. In sending her final report she wrote: "Though many times I have almost despaired of completing my work, yet I am very thankful that I have struggled through all difficulties and at last come off conqueror. I have been wonderfully benefited by the course. Not only have I been helped intellectually in a broad sense, but can thank my Chautauqua study for passing at a very high per cent two difficult teachers' examinations."



PICTURES FOR STUDY PURPOSES.

The Perry Pictures (one cent each) are now so widely known that circles hardly need to be reminded of their value in supplementing the illustrations already provided in the C. L. S. C. books and THE CHAUTAUQUAN. Prang's platinettes are larger, and offer a different and very effective style of illustration also at a very low price (five cents each). The Elson Prints are ten cents each, but they are printed in a delicate brown tint on

include only Greek and Roman architecture, Greek sculpture and Egyptian architecture, but others are in preparation. Readers who are not familiar with these various types of illustration will do well to send ten cents to each publisher, and secure specimens. (The Perry Picture Company, Tremont Temple; A. W. Elson & Company, 146 Oliver street; Prang Educational Company, all of Boston, Massachusetts.

the January CHAUTAUQUAN seem to have been a little misleading. The cities and foreign characters are ten cents each, and the game of the dollar. "Greek Mythology" and "Sevens in Greece" are each \$1.00. Orders may be sent to the Chautauquans. The demand for these games is evidence that the circles are quick to take their opportunities.



OUTLINE OF READING AND PROGRAMS.

C. L. S. C. MOTTOES.

"We Study the Word and the Works of God."

"Let us Keep our Heavenly Father's Commandments."

"Never be Discouraged."

C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS.

OPENING DAY—October 1.

BRYANT DAY—November, second Sunday.

MILTON DAY—December 9.

COLLEGE DAY—January, last Thursday.

LANIER DAY—February 3.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.

LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.

SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.

ADDISON DAY—May 1.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.

INAUGURATION DAY—August, first Sunday.

ST. PAUL'S DAY—August, second Saturday.

RECOGNITION DAY—August, third Wednesday.



OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING.

FEBRUARY 25—MARCH 4—

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: The Rivalry of Nations. Chap. 20. The Inner Life of The Chevalier Bayard.

Required Book: Homer to Theocritus. Chaps. 6 and 7 (to page 156).

MARCH 4—11—

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: A Reading Journey in the Orient. The Inner Life of Odysseus.

Required Book: The Human Nature Club. Chaps. 1, 2, and 3.

MARCH 11—18—

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: The Rivalry of Nations. Chaps. 21 and 22.

Required Book: Homer to Theocritus. Chap. 7 (concluded).

MARCH 18—25—

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: The Rivalry of Nations. Chaps. 23 and 24.

Required Books: Grecian History. Chap. 8. Homer to Theocritus. Chap. 8.

MARCH 25—APRIL 1—

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: Critical Studies. Literature: The Short Story in France.

Required Books: Grecian History. Chap. 8 (page 187). Homer to Theocritus. Human Nature Club. Chaps. 4 and 5.

APRIL 1—8—

Required Books: Grecian History. (continued). Homer to Theocritus. Chap. 8. Human Nature Club. Chaps. 6, 7, and 8.



SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLES.

In the notes on page 655 a selection is given from Haigh's "The Attic Theatre." Circles can secure this book and find it full of most interesting information covering the Greek theater. Attention is also called to some of the subjects suggested under the Round Table entitled "The Thinking Habit." These could be used very effectively as topics for discussion in the circle.

FEBRUARY 25—MARCH 4—

1. Roll-call: A test of observation. Number of birds' nests noted by each member in his daily walk. (See Nature Study article in this number.)
2. Summary of Chapter 20 in "Rivalry of Nations."
3. Paper: The settlement of Cape Colony.
4. Character Study: Livingstone.
5. The story of Stanley's first and second expeditions.
6. Review of early Greek poets. One should be assigned to each member, who will find out all he can about the poet, and describe his work and character without giving his name.

7. Reading: Selections from Byron's "The Vision of Judah," with the story of the poem.
8. Game of Greek quotations. Two members should be prepared beforehand. Each member being provided with a paper, sets down twenty-five numbers. The leader reads the quotation, of the author. Or the circle may take a larger number of quotations, and taking a larger number of which side can hold out the longest laurel would be an appropriate game for the victor.

MARCH 4-11—

1. Quiz and discussions on Chapters 1, 2, and 3 of "The Human Nature Club." (Professor James classes the chief "native reactions" as fear, love, curiosity, imitation, emulation, ambition, pugnacity, pride, ownership, constructiveness, etc. It will be suggestive to take up these in turn and see how the child's development may best be helped by utilizing them wisely. The differences between the "native reactions" of children and of the lower animals will also bring out some interesting facts bearing upon the higher nature of man.)
2. Quiz on article on Constantinople.
3. Papers: Chrysostom and His Times; Justinian I. and His Work.
4. Reading: Description of the Hippodrome. (See Grosvenor's "Constantinople.")
5. Map Review: Famous places in medieval Constantinople.
6. Roll-call: Reports of existing antiquities: The Cisterns; The Aqueduct of Valens; The Tower of Galata; The City Walls; The Prison of Anemas.
7. Reading: Selection from Grosvenor's description of St. Sophia.

MARCH 11-18—

1. Map Review of European claims in Africa.
2. Paper: Leopold of Belgium.
3. Reading: Selection from "Tropical America," Henry Drummond. Or "The Story of Fashoda." (See "The Fashoda Incident," Winston Spencer Churchill, *North American Review*, Dec., 1898; also *The Outlook*, Oct. 22, 1898, page 462, Nov. 19, 1898, page 709, or "The First Crossing of Africa," *The World's Work*, Jan., 1901.)
4. Character Study: Alexander Mackay, of Uganda. (See his life by his sister.)
5. Roll-call: Quotations from Æschylus, with a brief account of the events to which they relate.
6. Discussion of the play of "Agamemnon": Those who can should secure and read the entire play; for the others the outline given by Professor Capps will answer. The following points may be assigned to different members and then discussed by the circle: Instances of picturesque description. Dramatic contrasts which heighten the effect of the play. Allusions to customs of everyday life. Æschylus's power in the delineation of character. Contrasts between the different characters. Ideas of right and wrong. The position of the gods in relation to human affairs. The influence of destiny. Professor Campbell says: "Æschylus is no pessimist, though some of his chief persons are surrounded with gloom. . . . He dwells on those features of each legend which are most calculated to impress on the spectator the realities in which he believed—pride, not merely prosperity, preparing downfall; sin leading to retribution either soon or late; the curse of heredity not irredeemable, but even when it falls giving scope for the display of moral grandeur."

MARCH 18-25—

1. Roll-call: Reports on article on French and Greek in the various colleges of this country, each member being assigned one college. (See page 531 of this magazine.)
2. Summary of Chapters 23 and 24 in "The Rivalry of Nations."
3. Discussion: What is "A True American Policy" toward foreign nations?
4. Review with map of Chapter 10, Grecian History.
5. Reading: Selections from "The Attic Theater."

Haigh. (See also page 655 of this magazine.)

6. For circles which cannot secure an entire play for discussion the following plan of study will be found interesting: Assign to several members the selections from the plays which are given, and let each bring in notes upon the passage studied, calling attention to the teachings which they contain, the ideas concerning life, concerning the hereafter, allusions to customs, to nature, etc., and emphasizing passages especially worthy to be memorized.

MARCH 25-APRIL 1—

1. Roll-call: Paragraphs in Highways and Byways.
2. Character Study: The rich men of Athens and their service to the state. (See note on page 655. Also Abbott's and Holm's histories on the age of Pericles, and "The City State of the Greeks and Romans," Fowler.)
3. Reading: Selection from "The Story of a Michigan Farm." (See page 594 of this magazine.)
4. Paper: How did Euripides regard Woman? (See Mahaffy's "Greek Literature," his "Social Life in Greece," and Symond's "Greek Poets.")
5. A Study of Euripides: Either on the plan suggested for Sophocles or by taking a single play, as "The Alcestis," and noting the following points: The striking scene between Apollo and Death. The description of the farewell of Alcestis. The contrast between Alcestis and Admetus. How is the heroism of Alcestis heightened by the character of her husband? What sharp contrast is effected by the scene with Heracles? How far does the element of voluntary sacrifice enter into other plays of the poet? To what extent in this and other plays does he make use of long narrative passages? Note illustrations of the fact that in Euripides "the tone and feeling of his personages come very near to the men and women of his own time."
6. Quiz: Discussion of Chapters 4 and 5 in "The Human Nature Club."
7. Sense Tests: 1. Matching colors. 2. Tasting small quantities of substances without seeing them. 3. Smelling. Different well-known liquids may be placed in bottles of similar shape and size, and each member of the company be allowed a moment only to determine from the odor what the liquid is. 4. Try also the test of sight as given on page 50.

APRIL 1-8—

1. Paper: The Parthenon: Its history, some peculiarities of its construction, its condition today. (See "New Chapters in Greek History"; Baedeker's "Greece"; "Mythology and Monuments of Ancient Athens," Harrison; Tarbell's "Greek Art," and the larger Greek histories.)
2. Reading: Selections from "How a Riddle of the Parthenon was Unravelled" (*Century Magazine*, June, 1897), or "The Parthenon by Moonlight." (See "In Palestine," R. W. Gilder; or "Modern Athens," *Scribner's*, Jan., 1901.)
3. Quiz on the general features of Greek comedy.
4. Discussion of the play of "The Birds"; note the following points: Aristophanes in many of his plays worked out at once the project of the principal actor and then developed comic situations by the introduction of some stray visitor. Compare the "Wasps," "Birds," "Peace," "Plutus," and "Acharnians." He often explains the plot at the outset either in soliloquy or dialogue; find examples of this. The poet was an aristocrat and satirized the middle and lower classes. His satires are chiefly directed

- against middle-aged men.
Study his brilliant dialogues
of lyric passages.
5. Quiz and discussion of
"The Human Nature C

Constantinople is so rich in landmarks that no photographs can do little more than suggest the city in detail with the help of the bibliography. The book for securing a wide acquaintance with the "History of Greece" will find many references to Byzantine emperors. In the study of the city, very helpful in making students familiar with the work of Grosvenor's work, and so provide a first week —

1. Roll-call: Reports on facts passed by the tourist in Constantinople through the Hell
2. Paper: Byzantium before the
3. Reading: Description of Constantinople (Grosvenor's "Constantinople" 381-3.) Also from "Arrest in Constantinople" Smith (*Century Magazine*)
4. Character Study: Constantinople
5. Reading: Description of Constantinople. (See Grosvenor's Vol. I., pp. 374-7.)
6. Papers: The Empire from Chrysostom.
7. Map Review: Reports of Constantinople in medieval Constantinople

Second Week —

1. Roll-call: Reports on excavations of the Aqueduct of Valens, The Cisterns.
2. Book Review: "The Prince of the rescue of Laocöon"
3. Paper: The reign of Justinian
4. Reading: The Revolt of Justinian of Belisarius. (Grosvenor's Vol. I., pp. 340-3.)
5. Reports on the Hippodrome Art Treasures; Its Sports and Its Associations; History of the Hippodrome.
6. Paper: The empire from Justinian

REVIEWS

CHAPTER X. THE ATHENIAN

1. How did Athens make contact with Asiatic Greeks after Mycale? 2. How enabled the Athenians to compel the Persians to molest? 3. What circumstances led to the withdrawal from the federal league of Delos? 4. How the enmity of the Spartan power affected the remainder of his career. 5. How become the tyrant of a maritime empire? 6. Cimon's rise to power. 7. How this time? 8. Why was Cimon? 9. What qualities of character gave leadership of Athens? 10. What a way from Sparta? 11. Why was Cimon at this time? 12. How did Athens of middle Hellas? 13. Why was the naval league removed from Delos? 14. What was the "Peace of Callias"?

REVIEW QUESTIONS ON "HOMER TO THEOCRITUS."

CHAPTER VII. (from page 156). ÆSCHYLUS.

1. From what sources almost entirely did the tragic poets take the subjects of their plays? 2. Give the chief facts known in the life of Æschylus. 3. What gives him the right to the title of creator of Attic tragedy? 4. How did he define the lines which tragedy was to follow in Greece? 5. Give the outline of the story of Æschylus's "Agamemnon." 6. Quote the prologue. 7. What is the Parodos and what its purpose? 8. Describe the first episode of the play. 9. What is the Stasimon? 10. Take up the succeeding episodes in order. 11. What are the second and third members of the trilogy? 12. Tell the story of these. 13. What is the play of the "Persians"? 14. Quote the description of the battle of Salamis. 15. What legend forms the background of the "Seven Against Thebes"? 16. What unique character does the "Prometheus Bound" possess?

CHAPTER VIII. SOPHOCLES.

1. Give an account of the early life of Sophocles. 2. What important innovations did he make in the art of the drama? 3. How successful was he in his dramatic career? 4. How does Æschylus's method of treating his characters compare with that of Sophocles? 5. Show the general attitude of Æschylus, Sophocles, and Euripides respectively to the times in which they lived. 6. Tell the story of the play of "Ajax." 7. What two portions of it are especially famous? 8. What is the story of the "Electra"? 9. Quote some of the famous lines from this play. 10. Give the story of "Philoctetes." 11. How does the play, "The Women of Trachis," differ from other plays of Sophocles? 12. What are the greatest of the tragedies of Sophocles? 13. Tell the story of the first of these. 14. How does the chorus in this play emphasize the majesty of law? 15. What peculiar style of dialogue is frequently employed in Greek tragedy? 16. Where is the scene of the second play laid? 17. What famous ode constitutes one of its most beautiful passages? 18. What incidents throughout the two tragedies illustrate the noble character of Œdipus? 19. Give the story of Antigone. 20. What qualities entitle her to the distinction of "the most perfect female character in Greek poetry"?

CHAPTER IX. EURIPIDES.

1. Give the chief facts in the life of Euripides. 2. How did the Athens of Euripides's day differ from that of Æschylus? 3. How did the genius of Euripides meet these demands? 4. How is his popularity shown? 5. How far was his influence felt by later poets? 6. How does Mrs. Browning characterize him? 7. How many of his plays survive? 8. How did he succeed in the competitions as compared with Sophocles and Æschylus? 9. What is the story of the "Alcestis"? 10. Quote some

of the fine passages of the "farewell." 11. Describe the "Medea." 12. What picture of woman's position is presented in this play? 13. Select passages from the tragedies thus far studied showing the Greek view of the under world. 14. What plays of Euripides are based upon the story of Iphigeneia? 15. Quote from Iphigeneia's entreaty. 16. Compare the different methods used by the three great poets in their treatment of the Electra. 17. What incidents form the background of the play of the "Trojan Women" and the "Hecabe"? 18. Quote from the noble description of the death of Polyxena. 19. What legend concerning Helen did Euripides make use of? 20. How does Euripides's play of the "Phœnician Women" differ from the treatment given this subject by Æschylus and Sophocles? 21. Quote the description of Ares in this play. 22. What extremes of tragedy are presented in the play of Heracles? 23. Quote some of the reflections upon life found in the illustrative ode from this play. 24. What is the story of the "Bacchanals"?

CHAPTER X. COMIC POETRY. ARISTOPHANES.

1. What was the origin of Greek comedy? 2. What changes seem to have been introduced by Susrion of Megara? 3. Who was the real founder of comedy, and how did he accomplish it? 4. When did comedy become important at Attica? 5. How did the number of actors and of the chorus compare with those of tragedy? 6. What were the three great periods of comedy? 7. What subjects were used for comic purposes? 8. Who were the chief poets of the old comedy? 9. What influence did Cratinus exert upon this old comedy? 10. How did Eupolis differ from him? 11. What is known of Aristophanes? 12. What forms were introduced into comedy differing from those in tragedy? 13. When and where was the comedy of "The Birds" produced? 14. What description of life in Athens is given in the opening of the play? 15. What proposition is made to the Hoopoe? 16. Quote from the bird calls which follow. 17. What is the plan developed by Peithetærus? 18. What is the subject of the first part of the parabasis? 19. Quote the selection given from the second part. 20. What short episodes follow? 21. What is the subject of the second parabasis? 22. Describe the interview with Prometheus. 23. What is the result of the peace commission which follows? 24. How do the plays of "Peace" and the "Acharnians" respectively illustrate the desire for peace with Sparta? 25. What three plays satirize women and in what way? 26. Quote the song by the chorus of women in the "Thesmophoriazuse." 27. What is the subject of the "Knights"? 28. In what play is Socrates burlesqued and why? 29. What is the subject of the "Wasps"? 30. Describe the "Frogs." 31. What striking contrast is shown in the chorus of the "Initiated"?

REVIEW QUESTIONS ON "THE HUMAN NATURE CLUB."

CHAPTERS I., II., AND III. WHAT THE BRAIN DOES. THINGS WE DO WITHOUT LEARNING. DIFFERENT WAYS OF LEARNING.

1. What do we mean by brain cells? 2. What is the chief business of a brain cell? 3. Why do people act differently under the same circumstances? Illustrate.

4. How are we able to do things without thinking? 5. Illustrate the fact that many things are done by man and animals without being learned. 6. What is the reason for this? 7. What is meant by the animal method of learning? 8. Illustrate this in the case of animals. 9. What causes the strengthening or weakening of the nerve connections? 10. How early does

1. What is meant by the statement that human consists of a multitude of reactions to sensations? 2. How are our actions dependent upon presence or absence of a sense? 3. How are we affected by the absence or presence of some function of a sense? 4. How on the range of a sense? 5. How on the delicacy of discrimination? What are complementary colors? 7. How is a sensation of a thing dependent upon its surroundings? 8. How are we made conscious of our sensations? 9. For what different reasons may any one set of sensations be made to cease? 10. How are the reactions of two people in the same circumstances affected by general bias of their minds? 11. How by the

NOTES ON GREEK

THE USE OF PUBLIC MONEY AT ATHENS

The expenditure of public money upon public works is justifiable so long as the works are needed, and money spent upon them is furnished by those who benefit it away. Nothing could be more creditable to a city or to the city than the proposal of Themistocles to devote the surplus arising from the mines of Laurion to the building of ships, and the fortification of Piræus. And, again, there are fewer acts which the rich contemplate with greater satisfaction than the giving of public works in order to provide employment for those who would otherwise find it difficult to obtain employment, or at least to obtain it on remunerative terms; when the money so spent is derived from sources contributed for other objects; or when a rich man allows his wealth to become a means of improving and corrupting his fellow-citizens. In matters of public finance the Athenians—and indeed the Romans—were partly in advance of us, and partly behind us. They were in advance of us in so far as they were generous to a large extent in the use of public money, which we do not expect to find among our own citizens. To spend a large fortune in acquiring things of value for his private gratification, was a use of money which a Greek would have been incapable of. His idea was not to speak of any higher motive, would have been vented it. On the other hand, the Greeks had no idea of public finance. They had not discovered the business of the modern financier; and they dealt with surplus in a rough and ready manner, giving by some way or another to the people anything that was left over at the year's end, without any thought of demoralization caused by such expenditure. It is the greatest hesitation that Demosthenes—a century after Pericles—ventures to suggest that those who receive the public money should do something for public service.—*Abbott's "History of Greece."*

THE TRAGIC ACTOR.

The practise of the Greeks in regard to tragedy was totally opposed to all modern notions of the subject. Historical accuracy and archaeological minuteness in the mounting of a play were matters of supreme indifference to the Greeks. Though the plots of most of their tragedies were laid in heroic times they never made the slightest attempt to rep-

powers of facial expression which are one of the chief excellencies in modern acting. It was only by his gestures that he could emphasize the meaning of what he had to say: his features remained immovable. But niceties of facial expression would have been entirely lost in the vast expanse of a Greek theater. The tragic mask, on which were depicted in bold and striking lines the main traits in the character represented, was really much more effective, and could be seen by the most distant spectator. Then again it must have been difficult, if not impossible, for a Greek actor to delineate finely drawn shades of individual character. The masks necessarily ran in general types, such as that of the brutal tyrant, the crafty statesman, the suffering maiden, and so on. The acting would have to correspond. It would be difficult to imagine the part of Hamlet acted in a mask. But the characters of Greek tragedy were mostly types rather than individuals. The heroes and heroines were drawn in broad general outlines, and there was little attempt at delicate strokes of character-painting. The use of masks no doubt helped to give this particular bent to Greek tragedy. . . . The tragic costume, as finally settled by Æschylus, was in many respects not unlike that worn by the hierophants and torch-bearers who officiated at the Eleusinian mysteries. According to one tradition the similarity was due to the priests having copied the dress of the tragic actors in later times. But it is much more probable that the very reverse was the case, and that Æschylus, in the course of his innovations, borrowed some hints from the dress of the priests. . . . The object of Æschylus was to devise a costume that should be suitable to the heroes and gods and supernatural beings with which his stage was peopled. . . . For this purpose he employed

various devices. Among them was the cothurnus, or tragic boot, the aim of which was to increase the stature of the actors, and to give them an appearance of superhuman grandeur. It was a boot with a wooden sole of enormous thickness attached to it. The wooden sole was painted in various colors. . . . The cothurnus varied in height according to the dignity and position of the wearers, a king, for instance, being provided with a larger cothurnus than a mere attendant. In this way the physical stature of the persons upon the stage was made to correspond to their social position. . . . The cothurnus was rather a clumsy contrivance, and it must have been somewhat inconvenient to walk with. The tragic actor had to be very careful to avoid stumbling upon the stage. Lucian says that accidents were not infrequent. Æschines met with a misfortune of this kind as he was acting the part of Œnomaus at Collytus. In the scene where Œnomaus pursues Pelops he tripped up and fell, and had to be lifted up again by the chorus-trainer Sannio. . . . The garments of the tragic actor were the same as the ordinary Greek dress, but their style and color were more magnificent. . . . As to the appearance which the tragic actor presented upon the stage, it is obvious that he must have been an impressive, though rather unnatural, figure. His large stature and bulky limbs, his harsh and strongly marked features, his tunic with its long folds and brilliantly variegated pattern, his mantle with its gorgeous colors, must have combined to produce a spectacle of some magnificence. . . . In the "Frogs" of Aristophanes Æschylus is humorously made to declare that it is only right that the demigods of tragedy should wear finer clothes and use longer words than ordinary mortals.—"*The Attic Theater*," *Haigh*.

ANSWERS TO SEARCH QUESTIONS.

"A READING JOURNEY IN THE ORIENT."—FEBRUARY.

1. A charm to secure entrance or exit through any portal, especially to secure admission to some desired place or sphere. An allusion to the story in "*The Arabian Nights*" of Ali Baba and the Forty Thieves, in which the door to the treasure cavern opened only at the utterance of these words. ("That old enchanted Arabian grain, the sesame, which opens doors.")—Ruskin's "*Sesame and Lilies*." 2. A royal dynasty in Syria which reigned from 312 B. C. to about 64 B. C.; descended from Seleucus Nicator. 3. St. Gregory Nazianzenus, surnamed "Theologus," was one of the fathers of the Eastern Church. He was born at Nazianzus in Cappadocia, about 325; died about 390. He was the leader of the orthodox party at Constantinople in 379 and was made Bishop of Constantinople in 380. 4. The Seljuk dynasties reigned from the eleventh to the thirteenth century. 5. Coal-tar dyes, the base of which, a colorless oily compound, is called aniline. Aniline was originally obtained in the distillation of indigo, but is now chiefly made from nitrobenzene. 6. A town of northern Italy near the Mediterranean coast north of Pisa. It is famous for the neighboring quarries of marble. 7. A mediæval confederation of cities of northern Germany and adjacent countries, called the Hanse towns, at one time numbering about ninety, with affiliated cities in nearly all parts of Europe, for the promotion of commerce by sea and land, and for protection against pirates, robbers and hostile governments. At the height of its prosperity it exercised sovereign powers, made treaties and often enforced its claims by arms in Scandinavia, England, Portugal, and elsewhere. Its origin is commonly dated from a compact between Hamburg and Lübeck in 1241, although commercial unions of German towns had

existed previously. The league held triennial general assemblies (usually at Lübeck, its chief seat); and after a long period of decline and attempts at resuscitation, the last general assembly, representing six cities, was held in 1669. The name was retained, however, by the union of the free cities of Lübeck, Hamburg and Bremen, which are now members of the German empire.

"THE RIVALRY OF NATIONS."—FEBRUARY.

1. In 1877, by act of Parliament, though she was declared sovereign of India by parliamentary act of 1858. 2. In 1702 and 1774 the British made unsuccessful attempts to effect a settlement in Borneo; but it was not until the middle of the nineteenth century through the enterprise of Sir James Brooke that the English secured control of the northwestern coast. 3. The Congo Free State is a sovereign, independent, monarchical state in central Africa. It was created in 1885 by the general act of the Congo, signed by the great powers. Leopold II. of Belgium, who was declared its sovereign, turned his rights over to Belgium, and in 1890 Belgium acquired by treaty the right to annex the Congo Free State after ten years. The area of the Congo Free State is about 900,000 square miles; its population is estimated at from 15,000,000 to 30,000,000. 4. Cecil Rhodes was born in Hertfordshire, England, in 1853. He went to South Africa for his health, amassed a fortune in the Kimberley diamond-fields, became a member of the Cape Colony ministry in 1884, and prime minister in 1890. Leader of the party which aims at federation and independence of South African states; and the originator of the Cape-to-Cairo scheme. 5. Réunion is an island in the Indian ocean, southwest of Mauritius. Area, 780 square miles; population, 170,000. 6. 1547–1584.

TOPICS of the HOUR with CURRENT EVENTS PROGRAMS.

[Note.—In the daily deluge of books and articles the average reader is hopelessly overwhelmed. Complete lists of references to current magazines and recent volumes are of value only to specialists. The busy person who wishes to be reasonably conversant with the leading questions of the day has no time for wide reading, and is too likely to be discouraged by an exhaustive "bibliography." THE CHAUTAUQUAN will seek to serve its subscribers by calling attention each month to a list of representative books, and typical articles which deal with the different phases of some one topic of current interest. The Current Events Programs are prepared for the use of clubs, college and other literary societies, women's clubs and organizations desiring direction for current events courses.]

VI. FOREIGN MISSIONS.*

INTRODUCTORY.—The first problem that missions, especially foreign, had to face was the difficulty of getting an open door to heathen countries. When that was finally secured, the following period was a campaign of many years to arouse sufficient interest for volunteers to present themselves in numbers large enough to carry on the work. The Student Volunteer Movement has solved that difficulty. Adequate financial support was the third test of missionary zeal at home, but even this problem appears to be of the past, the great missionary boards being now able to obtain money for all needs. The age of romance, therefore, if such we may call it, is over. Plain, practical missionary service must now be studied, and so far as possible our attention must be directed toward the development of the best methods. It would be strange if the new century should not reveal the necessity of some important changes in methods of administration and forms of work on the field.

"Are Foreign Missions Doing any Good?" (Paul, Trench & Co., London, 1887.) A booklet of testimony from public men and government records regarding the sociological results of missions among the heathen.

Bliss, E. M. "Encyclopædia of Missions." (Funk & Wagnalls, 2 vols., New York, 1891.) Unequaled for facts on any phase of the question.

Clark, F. E. "Do Foreign Missions Pay?" (*North American Review*, Vol. CLXVI., p. 268.) Aside from religious value they have been worth the cost for results in geography, architecture, medicine, philology, and education.

Clarke, Wm. N. "A Study of Christian Missions." (Scribners, New York, 1900.) Refreshing discussion of the prospect of missions in the light of modern thought and experience.

Dennis, Jas. S. "Christian Missions and Social Progress." (Revell, 3 vols., New York, 1889.) Exhaustive treatment of social evils of non-Christian world, the ineffectual remedies of heathenism, the causes of this failure. Presents Christianity as social hope of the nations. Most useful and helpful book.

Dennis, Jas. S. "Foreign Missions after a Century." (Revell, New York, 1893.) Good survey of problems and success of missions, also of the controversies of Christianity with opposing religions.

Ellinwood, F. F. "Questions and Phases of Modern Missions." (Dodd, Mead & Co., New York, 1899.) Able discussion of hindrances, reflex influence on the church, the place of the higher education, etc.

Gandhi, V. R. "Why Christian Missions have failed in India." (*Forum*, Vol. XVII., p. 160.) Claims that Christianity is not as satisfactory a philosophy as the religions of India, and that the first Europeans injured the cause by their example of unholy living.

Graham, J. A. "Missionary Expansion Since the Reformation." (Revell, New York, 1893.) Graphic

and interesting sketch of the progress, viewed from a missionary's standpoint.

Johnston, H. H. "Are Our Foreign Missions a Success?" (*Fortnightly*, Vol. LI., p. 481.) Indirect result has been remarkable in educating and humanizing savage peoples.

Laurie, Thos. "The Ely Volume." (A. B. C. F. M., Boston, 1885.) A treasure-house of facts relating to contributions of our foreign missionaries to science and human well being, along all lines of missionary enterprise.

Lowe, John. "Medical Missions." (Revell, New York, 1887.) Presents scope and power of medical missions. They enable the missionary to make an appeal on a double basis.

Mackenzie, W. D. "Christianity and the Progress of Man." (Revell, New York, 1897.) A handbook of the part missionaries have played in the development of uncivilized world. Helpful and interesting.

Merriam, E. E. "Foreign Missions in the Twentieth Century." (*Review of Reviews*, Vol. XXIII., p. 64, January, 1901.) Excellent summary of the lessons from the experience of the past century; the keynote of present critical missionary thought.

Martin, Chalmers. "Apostolic and Modern Missions." (Revell, New York, 1898.) Compares modern missions with apostolic in respect to principles, problems, methods, and results.

Pierson, A. T. "The Crisis of Missions." (Carter & Brothers, New York, 1886.) Belongs to the period when the laborers were too few, and the great impending problem was that of financial support.

Smith, Geo. "Short History of Christian Missions." (T. & T. Clark, Edinburgh, 1897.) Convenient and good outline of missionary history from Paul to Carey.

Smith, Judson. "Foreign Missions in the Light of Fact." (*North American Review*, Vol. CLXI., p. 21.) Defense of missions against the charge of poorly adapted methods and incapable management.

*"Party Government in England, France, and the United States" appeared in October. "Trusts" appeared in November. "Village Improvement Associations and Kindred Topics" appeared in December. "Divorce" appeared in January. "Race Problems in the United States" appeared in February.

Stock, E. "The Church Missionary Society: Financial Accounts." (*Fortnightly*, Vol. L., p. 774.) A most interesting reply to Canon Taylor's articles (listed below).

Strong, Josiah. "The New Era." (Baker & Taylor, New York, 1893.) Nineteenth century has been age of preparation for great progress in perfection of humanity, which will emerge largely through missions. A hopeful aspect of the future.

Taylor, Isaac. "The Great Missionary Failure" and

"Missionary Finances." (*Fortnightly*, Vol. L., pp. 488 and 581.) Study in the financing of the two great English missionary societies, finding success inadequate and largely visionary, the cause being wrong methods. These papers were a thunderbolt at missions.

Wishard, L. D. "A New Program of Missions." (Revell, New York, 1895.) Proposes making colleges centers for enlisting a force for the world's evangelization.

CURRENT EVENTS PROGRAMS.

First Week —

1. Reading: From "Foreign Missions in the Twentieth Century," Merriam (listed above).
2. Oration: The mistakes of missionaries.
3. Paper: (1) The Student Volunteer Movement. (2) What missions have done for women.
4. Debate: Resolved, That denominationalism is the greatest hindrance to success in missionary work.

Second Week —

1. Reading: From "Do Foreign Missions Pay?" by F. E. Clark (listed above).
2. Oration: Missionary Heroes.
3. Paper: (1) What missions have done for philology. (2) Compare Roman Catholic and Protestant missionary methods.
4. Debate: Resolved, That foreign missions have done more to extend civilization than militarism.

Third Week —

1. Reading: (1) From "The Great Missionary Fail-

ure," by Taylor (listed above). (2) Chapter from "The New Era," by Strong (listed above).

2. Oration: Missions the exponent of religious vitality.
3. Paper: (1) Medical Missions. (2) The college as a missionary center.
4. Debate: Resolved, That results of missionary labors in the nineteenth century justified the sacrifices entailed.

Fourth Week —

1. Reading: (1) Chapter on "Problem of Modern Missions," or (2) "Methods of Modern Missions," by Martin (listed above).
2. Oration: The Missionary as the Advance-Guard of Civilization.
3. Paper: (1) The ethical value of missions. (2) Some needed reforms in missionary methods.
4. Debate: Resolved, That missionary effort should be concentrated on the home field.



SOME PEN PICTURES OF CIRCLE LIFE BY MEMBERS OF THE C. L. S. C.

The following "pen pictures" have been received in response to the request of the editor for brief, comprehensive accounts of the lives of individual circles. They represent an interesting variety of types, and suggest the diverse forms which Chautauqua energy may take. Sometimes as a section of a department club, the circle is responsible for the literary standard of the organization; or as a church circle it fosters a junior home-study course for readers less advanced. Libraries are established, lone readers sought out and encouraged, isolated members written to regularly, and ministers, teachers, and others peculiarly qualified to help are given an opportunity to render service. It is worth noting that the attitude of every circle is that of looking forward. Complacent satisfaction can never be a characteristic of the true Chautauquan, for the goal always lies beyond.

AUGUSTA, GEORGIA.

One of the greatest of modern writers has said, "The happiest nations and the happiest women are those that have no history at all." If any analogy exists between nations, women, and Chautauqua circles, then our circle is certainly a happy one. It arose among us in a most quiet and unostentatious manner, in the autumn of 1892. It has lived with us ever since,

and some of the original members are still answering to their names.

In all these years there have been no startling events to record, no large public meetings, no social entertainments, and yet, like a happy woman without a history, the circle lives on, making life a pleasanter thing to those who come within its brightening and stimulating influence.

The course of reading is so sane and wholesome, and so well suited to all ages and tastes, that two years ago our membership began with a grandmother and ended with a *débutante*. There are sixteen of us, and we have a president, secretary, and treasurer, all elected for one year. It is true that our president (Mrs. J. R. Lamar) has been unanimously reelected, until she would fain have imitated old Governor Bradford and begged for "just one year off in which to attend to her own affairs." These are the times, however, "when a woman does more work in a day than a man can do in seven," and so we still have our president. We meet at twelve o'clock every Friday, and as each member's name is called by the secretary she answers, giving in a concise form all the information she possesses on some subject which bears on the lesson.

Naturally the attention of the circle has been called to China in the recent past. At one of the meetings our secretary, Mrs. Carlton Hillyer, became so thoroughly imbued with the spirit of the times that she forgot her English and brought her minutes in "heathen Chinese" lingo. That morning there was much "talkee, talkee," and "velly much laughes, laughes."

I believe every member of our circle feels indebted to the Chautauqua system. We have spent profitable hours in reading and studying for the meetings, and we look forward to our Friday mornings with unflinching interest and pleasure.

ANNE E. BRANCH.

GLADSTONE AND PARK PLACE, OREGON.

Abernethy Chautauqua Circle of Park Place-Gladstone, was organized with about twenty members in October, 1897. Since then there has been a marked increase each year until at the present time there are thirty-seven enrolled, ten of whom are members of the "Twentieth Century Class," and expect to complete the required work in time to receive their diplomas during the assembly at Gladstone Park next July.

Our circle is composed of men and women, old and young, all busy workers — teachers, students, clerks, lawyers, business men, and housekeepers, to whom the Chautauqua hours are seasons of delightful mental recreation and social intercourse.

The meetings are held at the homes of the members, alternately, every Monday evening from 7:30 to 9:30. The attendance is always good, although muddy paths and lanterns take the place of sidewalks and street lights. Two leaders choose sides at the beginning of the year, and a contest for credits ensues, the losing side entertaining the winners at the close of each half year's reading. Credits are given for attendance, response at roll-call, required reading, and special duty. Three or four papers are assigned to different members at the beginning of each book, the subjects being on lines brought out by the lessons. At roll-call the members respond with quotations, Greek words in our language, answers to review questions, important current events, etc. A committee provides music each meeting. Informal discussion on some interesting subject is often indulged in. About one hour is devoted to a general discussion of the lesson, led by the president, who brings out the principal thoughts by leading questions on each topic.

The president assigns the program for each meeting, and the members cheerfully perform all duties required of them.

(MRS.) EMMA GALLOWAY, President.

ESCONDIDO, CALIFORNIA.

We have twenty-seven members, and as a large number of them are busy housewives, it requires a great effort always to have a full attendance, especially as a number of the members live in the country. We all enjoy the work this year, the magazine is better than ever, and the articles on the "Rivalry of Nations" very valuable. The Greek history we are looking forward to, and expect to enjoy it. We took a two weeks' vacation at the holidays, and have had one large and interesting meeting since then.

ESTHER M. BROWN, President.

GREELEY, COLORADO.

Our circle is doing very creditable work. We meet regularly the third Friday evening in each month. At our last meeting as our opening exercise, I read Bishop Vincent's January greeting and we had a genuine vesper service. We review the reading, one member, Mrs. Craig, having charge of the Reading Journey. She takes us over the ground in such a charming way that we feel we have taken the journey. We have tried many plans for making the most of our meetings, and are convinced that for people who want to fix in their minds what has been read, we have found, for us at least, the best methods. One is appointed to summarize a chapter, and then we have a fine discussion with any additions to what has already been given, that may be thought of by others. Our two hours are all too short.

(MRS.) M. ELLA VINCENT.

SHELBYVILLE, ILLINOIS.

Three years ago our circle was organized with a membership of seven, which increased to thirteen last

year, and this year numbers twenty — the limit of membership fixed by the society. Although ranging in age from a young woman just out of college to a grandmother of sixty, we are remarkably congenial, and work together most happily. Every member does the reading carefully, and assigned special work is invariably well done.

The attendance at our weekly meetings is excellent, fifteen to seventeen usually, out of a possible twenty. I do not know that there is anything new in the way in which our circle is conducted. We follow many of the ideas in the "Suggestive Programs," but devote much of the hour to the quiz and discussion of the lesson and the effort to bring out the really important facts. We avoid long papers as the plague, and ask that whenever possible the character-sketches, book reviews, etc., be given as offhand talks, — which has proved to be a most beneficial practice. I enclose a program which we gave at the January meeting of the woman's club.

I am very happy to be able to report to you a circle in such a satisfactory and flourishing condition.

GEORGE T. HOPKINS, President.

The program given before the woman's club, of which the circle is a department, is reported in the local press as follows:

The topic chosen for the program was the work done by the circle during the last three months, viz.: "The French Revolution." Roll-call was answered by one-minute talks on characters active in that great struggle for liberty. Mrs. J. D. Miller read a paper on "The Condition of France Previous to the Revolution"; Mrs. Dearing on "The Influence of French Literature on the Revolution"; Mrs. Wm. Craig on "Parisian Mobs," and Miss Winfred Douthit gave a compilation from Carlyle on the "Diamond Necklace." These papers, as well as the minute talks, showed much thought and research, and were received with an interest very complimentary to both speakers and audience.

BUTLER, INDIANA.

The members of the Philomathean Circle of Butler, Indiana, are enjoying their work especially this year. All are enthusiastic, and devote as much time as possible to study, knowing how beneficial the lessons are; and although each one leads a busy life, loyalty to "C. L. S. C." is never wavering, and the meetings are well attended.

The programs are varied as much as possible. Friendly discussions and, occasionally, a pleasant entertainment are enjoyed after the hour of study.

The club is fortunate in having among its members an English lady who came to America recently. She has added to our ideas those from abroad, and because of her personal knowledge of foreign countries makes clear many things that are not understood.

Because of being especially congenial, the members work in unison and do all in their power to be true Chautauquans.

A MEMBER.

HANOVER, INDIANA.

Our circle consists of sixteen ladies who have many duties outside of this literary work, and consequently little time to spare. As a result, we meet but once in two weeks, and undertake very little of the work as it is mapped out in THE CHAUTAUQUAN. The executive committee, consisting of the three officers, makes out the program for the meetings, assigning the work to each member in turn. The president presides, or during her absence the recording secretary, and the program follows this general plan: Roll-call, answered by quotations from the poets on some particular theme,

incidents from "The French Revolution," a short sketch of different Greek deities, etc. Two papers bearing directly on the lesson, the material of which is to be found in books and articles outside of the circle literature. Under this head also come map talks. The last of our literary program is lighter and more suitable to the close of the meeting, and here are introduced readings from "The Song of Roland," "Innocents Abroad," or another bit of literature that may bear on some topic in the required reading. As a few of our number have had the pleasure of a trip abroad, personal experiences in the cities or countries under consideration are always pleasant and entertaining, especially so when illustrated with photographs or pictures of any sort.

Only one other feature of our work remains to be spoken of, and that is the parlor lecture, which is not a small part of the enjoyment to be found in our circle. These are kindly given by the professors of Hanover College, and we have from two to three during the year. During the months of January and February the circle and many outside friends will have the pleasure of hearing Professor McComb on "The French Revolution," and Professor Garritt on "The Greek Tragedies."

HELEN SIDWELL OLDFATHER, Secretary.

COSHOCTON, OHIO.

The program of the Home Study Circle which accompanied the following report, outlines the plan of work for the year. Each weekly bulletin of Grace M. E. Church with which the circle is connected, contains a suggestive quotation from some great writer as an incentive to higher aims and as a reminder that the Home Study Circle is ready to help. This circle is under the direction of members of the Chautauqua circle, and each weekly program for the current year takes up one poet, his character and his work, and one famous woman. This is supplemented by practical talks and a critic's report. The work of the Coshocton C. L. S. C. in this direction shows how the C. L. S. C. may help to train leaders for the much-needed service of guiding those who long for better things but do not know how to attain them.

The Coshocton C. L. S. C. for the century's closing decade has been an active organization. Of its seven charter members three are still enthusiastic Chautauquans. One of these has each year received one or more seals. As the years come and go, may Chautauqua seals never be less than her demands.

Fifty persons have responded to our cordial invitation to join our circle. At present but sixteen are enrolled. Three "ha' slipped awa"; some the great west has claimed; seven have gone into what seems to them the more convenient afternoon clubs; and ten have fallen by the way.

Such is the harmony of the circle that it is known as the "mutual admiration society." But with thoughts of the closing century we have awakened to the fact that internal harmony and self-advancement are not enough. We have interested a lone member among the hills and are meeting the expenses of his course of reading. We have reached out for the busy wage-earner, the homeless stranger in our bustling manufacturing center. And today we speak with gratitude of the "Home Study Circle," the child of the Coshocton

C. L. S. C., born November 30, 1899, and growing in favor. We submit its program. Every Sabbath through the church bulletins it sends broadcast a thought drawn from some phase of its work. This circle's influence is wide-reaching, and it is destined to be a power. Stress is laid upon daily living. The key-note of the organization is found in its motto, "We aim to keep our Heavenly Father in our midst;" and in its colors: White, purity of thought and expression; Pink, brightness of face and voice.

MRS. GAULT,
MRS. POWELSON,
MISS KATE MCCLURE,
Committee.

CAZENOVIA, NEW YORK.

The club known as "Miss Dows' Art Class" which has met for many years in Cazenovia has had a very wide influence. As the following account from the leader herself shows, the work started with a Chautauqua circle. The club has had exceptional advantages in many ways, for books and pictures have been freely placed at their service by their indefatigable leader. During the past year, the members presented Miss Dows with a silver loving-cup in token of their appreciation. It is pleasant to feel that the club has so thoroughly represented the altruistic spirit of Chautauqua, and has let its light shine in the community to good purpose.

It is difficult to answer according to questions, as the "Art Class" is entirely led by me, always meets at my house, and has no officers or formal organization. I give my entire time to the work, from October to April or May, when I am at home. The meetings are not formal, taking place every Monday afternoon from 2:30 to 4:30. We took the name of the "Art Class" more especially during the three years' course on the history of art. I have twenty seals on my diploma, for we took the regular four years' course and were "The Argonauts" (Class of '89). We have taken the History of Art, the Trip to England, the Study of the Iliad and Odyssey especially prepared for us, and we now intend to begin the History of Russia. I am most enthusiastic over the new Russian course—I feel I have interesting work and reading for a year or so at least—and am ordering a great many books for it. I have bought almost a library of books for the several courses. The invaluable pleasure and profit I have received from the courses of reading done under the auspices of the C. L. S. C. are to me most gratifying. It affords added pleasure to feel that I have been able to interest so many others, especially as we have done marked work, aside from our studies, for the benefit of the community. Our class of forty members has given benefits for our free library amounting to nearly one hundred and fifty dollars, and in many ways brought to the notice of others the benefit and knowledge of well-prepared courses of study.

AMANDA DOWS.

FLATBUSH, LONG ISLAND, NEW YORK.

The Winthrop Circle is composed almost entirely of bright young people, who, under the direction of a wise and ingenious leader, are pursuing their studies with all the ardor of youth. The following report gives a

A Tonic and Nerve Food

HORSFORD'S Acid Phosphate

When exhausted, depressed or weary from worry, insomnia or overwork of mind or body, take half a teaspoon of Horsford's Acid Phosphate in half a glass of water.

It nourishes, strengthens and imparts new life and vigor by supplying the needed nerve food.

Sold by Druggists in original packages only.

"Coming events cast their

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EXTRACT
OF BEEF

is the substance
of the best in beef.

typical meeting. The reference to art studies brings out an interesting method of using the Perry pictures or other cheap reproductions of great masterpieces. When one has looked up the story of a great picture and has written a description of it one develops a personal interest not only in the picture but in any facts of history or literature which may be associated with it. The circle uses the Chautauqua games and other devices for adding variety to a program which has for its basis good hard study.

The tenth weekly meeting of the Winthrop Circle, of Flatbush, opened with our favorite vesper hymn and responses, followed by one of the Epworth League hymns. At roll-call we mustered a company of characters from the French Revolution, a description being given of each.

Note was then made as to who had kept up with the required reading, and then we turned our thoughts to "The French Revolution." We had our usual written examination, in this case on the last chapter, and a short résumé of the principal events from start to finish of Shailer Mathews's well-written book. The president complimented the circle upon our study and the careful reading, which had enabled us to reach such high percentages up to this portion of our season's work. We said good-bye to "The French Revolution," being fully convinced that we had a fairer and clearer view of the French Revolution both with regard to its terrors and to its succeeding benefits.

The next number on the program, a paper, "Reminiscences of the Hôtel de Ville," showed careful preparation and was received with great favor. This was followed by a charming recitation on the rivalry of different national opinions on the Statue of Liberty, and this in turn was succeeded by a well-written essay on "Notre Dame." Another short but very interesting paper on "The Louvre," and then the other members read their descriptions of art pictures drawn on the preceding Wednesday.

Two curios brought by one of the members excited great interest. One was a shoe-buckle which had been worn in France during the time of the French Revolution, the other a box of straw in the form of a book made by a prisoner in a French prison at the same period.

We decided to postpone our next weekly meeting until December 26, when we meet with a roll-call of characters from a book on Greek literature.

G. EDWIN DE LORRAINE, Secretary.

SEA CLIFF, LONG ISLAND.

The Bryant Circle of Sea Cliff, Long Island, now in its second year, was organized by the literary department of the Epworth League, but the membership is not confined to Methodists.

Sea Cliff is a summer resort, only a few miles from the home of William Cullen Bryant. During the winter months the circle is an important feature in the intellectual and social life of the community. Among its members are a number of persons of wide experience and recognized ability in various fields of usefulness. The membership at present numbers thirty-five, seven of whom are postgraduates. Not as many of the members as could be desired are enrolled at the Cleveland Office, but all are interested in the work and find the meetings a source of profit.

The circle had a debate in December, with three debaters on each side and five judges. Subject:

"Resolved, That a monarchy is better than a republic for people not trained in self-government."

At one meeting the program was arranged according to the plan carried out in "The House Boat on the Styx," the members personating characters prominent in French history about the time of the Revolution.

At the first meeting of the new year the following program was rendered:

Roll-call: New Year's quotations.
History of America during the last century.
European history during the last century.
Changes in Asia during the last century.
Changes in Africa during the last century.
Advance of science during the last century.
Important inventions during the last century.
Development of industries during the last century.
Some great writers of the last century.
Original poem.
Question box.

The following is the program for January 21:

Roll-call: Quotations about Egypt.
Talk (with map) on Greek lands.
Legends of Greece.
Homer and an Introduction to Greek Literature.
The Rosetta Stone.
Pyramids and sphinx.
Discussion: The Eastern Question.
Question box.

LOTTIE E. EDWARDS, Secretary.

RANDOLPH, VERMONT.

In number the membership of the circle is the same as in previous years. There were nine present at our last meeting. The circle is composed of graduates and those not finding it possible at present to take up the work in as thorough a manner as they would be required to do if intending to graduate. They are still keeping in line, and are taking the Chautauqua lessons as given out with much pleasure and interest. We have with us teachers in the graded school, a newspaper reporter, one professional singer, and several housewives, none that have time unlimited to devote to this or any specialty however attractive. We have first the roll-call, which usually is made of the finest bit of thought condensed, and it is often a "rarebit." We then listen to the secretary's report which is always interesting. We are sometimes surprised that we have done so well. Then comes the reading of the papers. They are written with care, and are well received. Then there are usually readings, among them one humorous selection. This with the questions and assignments of lesson occupies the evening, and I will say here that not one reading, or two, will prepare one to answer the questions on "The Rivalry of Nations," that a persistent study is necessary to fix the facts stated in the mind; that there are a large number of subjects to select from for readings of papers; that the magazine is filled with good things.

MRS. S. S. BASS.

SEYMOUR, CONNECTICUT.

We have a committee known as our program committee, and at each meeting this committee announces the program for the next one. We meet twice a month. Our program usually is a varied one, consisting of short quizzes by the president, or a brief review of the work. Aside from this we have had several debates and at each meeting very interesting papers on some phase of the work either in THE CHAUTAUQUAN or from one of the books. We usually have about fifteen minutes' recess which is spent in experimenting with electrical machines, conundrum guessing, story-

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telling, or serving light refreshments. We are fortunate in having in our membership a woman of fine education and rare talent who has given us excellent drills in parliamentary rules and three papers, one of them on French Statesmen being especially able.

Our critic's report is always full of interest, and is one of the attractions of our meetings. We are very fond of the work and our circle is, I think, making an unusually thorough study of the course.

EDGAR C. TULLAR, President.

#### EDGEWOOD, PROVIDENCE, RHODE ISLAND.

The Roger Williams Circle of Edgewood, Rhode Island, meets every Friday afternoon in the new public library, and spends two and one-half hours in reading and study. It is progressing very rapidly, as is shown by its increasing numbers, also by the average good attendance. While doing the required reading of the club we have made a specialty of the French Revolution, and as our president, Mrs. Wm. Burge, is a French scholar she has greatly assisted us in many ways and has made the study much more interesting and instructive than it would otherwise have been. Her kindly offer to teach a French class the ladies of the circle very gladly accepted. The class meets every Tuesday evening and shows great proficiency in the language, considering the number of lessons taken. Mrs. E. C. Pearce, our treasurer, has spent much valuable time in looking up extracts from different authors to be read at the circle meetings. These have been greatly appreciated. We think, as a circle, that we have a very clear knowledge of the French Revolution, and hope the Greek course which we commence next week will be equally interesting and enjoyable.

MRS. CHAS. L. MARSTON.

#### BUFFALO, NEW YORK.

The Riverside Chautauqua Circle was organized in 1898. The membership is made up of people of different occupations, but the majority are school teachers. At present it has twenty-seven members, consisting of twenty women and seven men. There is an average attendance of twenty-three.

At the beginning of the term, aside from the officers were appointed two leaders, who chose sides. Credit marks are given at each meeting, one for each of the following: Being present, on time, having roll-call, special duty, and being read up. Members who are unable to be present but send a report, receive credits accordingly. At the end of the term the losing side is to furnish a banquet.

The two leaders name two other monthly leaders, and these monthly leaders assign the lessons and appoint those who are to review the work. The meetings are opened with a Chautauqua song and with prayer. The regular routine of work and business is gone through, after which papers or poems are read by different members.

Quite frequently the circle has been favored with interesting talks by different men who have traveled extensively abroad and are able to throw much light on the reading in the several books. The circle occasionally has social gatherings, which are found to be very helpful.

#### SCHENECTADY, NEW YORK.

In our circle we invite all members of our county, so far as we can secure names. All these meet with us each week, or if they are not able to come, a vote is taken for the best paper read at that particular meeting, and a copy is ordered sent to those members, they returning the compliment. We are getting much outside strength and help in this way.

We are following the plan of last year of having three papers on the reading of the month in place of the "quiz." We find it works better followed by some speaker. We have held one vesper service. We have succeeded in persuading the Y. W. C. A. and Y. M. C. A. and the public library to subscribe for THE CHAUTAUQUAN this year. The librarian placed on the bulletin a list of books bearing on the work of the year, and a list of substitute books for seal work. You can well guess how much this helped "us poor Chautauquans."

IDA M. MYRICK, Secretary.

#### BROOKLYN, NEW YORK.

The Brooklyn alumni sends a report of its program for February 5, which evidently has to do with St. Valentine. The mysteries of Eleusis were not more carefully withheld from the public than are these of the alumni:

##### PROGRAM.

##### Part First.

Opening Exercises.

Business.

Mystery.

?

More Mystery.

Mister Y.

##### INTERMISSION.

##### Part Second.

Mysterious Time.

Another Mystery.

?

Mysterious Saint.

One More Mystery.

Mysterious Hearts.

Miss Terry.

##### Mysterious Finale.

#### BAYONNE, NEW JERSEY.

The Whittier C. L. S. C. has representatives of four classes among its members. They keep as nearly to the required readings as possible, and are beginning the study of Greek history and literature with interest. The circle numbers fourteen men and women, all of whom would gladly devote more time to the work than they can command. The president, who is of the Class of 1890, is full of enthusiasm.

L. C. GOULD, Secretary.

#### SHEFFIELD, PA., THE H. M. CONAWAY CIRCLE.

Our original circle of sixteen, organized in 1899, following the true spirit of last year's study has expanded. We now number forty-three, eighteen of whom are men, the majority of them professional and business men. Described by classes we consist of thirty-one 1904's, nine 1903's, two '99's, and one '82.

To our president, Byron B. Horton, graduate of State College, Pennsylvania, who has purchased many valuable books of reference for the benefit of the circle, the deep interest characterizing the year's study is largely due; but to Rev. Dr. Conaway, formerly professor of Latin and European history at Ohio University, we owe the existence of the circle itself. "The Rivalry of Nations" under his leadership has held the closest interest from the first. We are promised in the near future a convention of delegates from the colonies of Great Britain. Each delegate is expected to relate briefly the history of his own land in its relation to England, and if so inclined, present his list of grievances.

Professor Mumford has closed a successful study of "The French Revolution." The Critical Studies have been treated exhaustively by one of our teachers in a



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fine series of papers. The Inner Life studies have been written up in an interesting manner by different members. Schliemann's discoveries, as related in a number of papers, have aroused great interest. Still another member is treating us to a series of talks on Greek art.

One evening only have we abandoned solid, hard work for "Literary Amusement." In place of the ordinary study of mythology, we spent "An Evening Among the Gods." To the individual members of the circle the character of a god or goddess was assigned, each describing the attributes of that special deity as his or her own. The Olympian deities and many others of less importance were present. The Muse family was represented by Terpsichore, who told us about her eight sisters; Echo spoke for the vast family of nymphs; even the Sirens and the Furies graced the assembly. The hearty enthusiasm of the large number taking part made the evening both humorous and profitable.

MRS. ARLOUINE JONES.

#### WARREN, PENNSYLVANIA.

The C. L. S. C. of Warren, Pennsylvania, was organized in October, 1894, at the suggestion of Mrs. G. W. Scofield. The circle was composed of charter and elected members to the number of twenty-five who were to conduct its exercises along the general line of Chautauqua work, varying them as circumstances might seem to require. During the first four years the circle pursued the reading of the regular prescribed C. L. S. C. courses; eight members completed the reading and graduated in 1898. The first postgraduate course was in English literature, this was followed by French history completed in 1900, and in 1901 a course in anthropology is being studied. These are all special C. L. S. C. courses. The general plan pursued during the regular four years' work was to follow very nearly the system laid down in THE CHAUTAUQUAN for the same period. Since that time the practise has been to adopt through a committee an annual program giving the work for each regular meeting during the coming year. These programs have been arranged with a view to encourage review study of important events, and to emphasize notable persons and periods connected with the study.

The zeal of our organizer, Mrs. Scofield, in Chautauqua work has been very great, and not only prompted her to do all the reading of the various courses pursued but also to entertain the circle at her home during the entire seven years of its existence.

#### HOLICONG, PENNSYLVANIA.

There has been such a varied and interesting program of work done by the Buckingham C. L. S. C. that it will be impossible to select therefrom what you may most desire to hear.

We held regular meetings every two weeks, which were opened by a short, silent prayer, followed by a scriptural or other religious reading. The roll of members was called, and each one responded to her name by giving a quotation, either from an author particularly chosen for the day or selected from the whole range of literature at our command.

After this there was a second calling of the roll, giving each one a chance to state whether she had performed the required amount of work, and woe to the luckless ones who had been too busy with other duties or too idle, and could not answer "prepared," for before them arose the vision of the entertainment which the delinquents would be required to give to their more fortunate sisters during the coming summer holidays.

After this routine business was finished, the regular work was taken up and questions on our required reading or on special work answered, calling forth much comment as the various answers brought out interesting facts from the book under discussion or from other sources. These exercises were varied by music, recitations, or entertaining readings. Our last exercise consisted of giving items of interest about what is happening in the world around us.

This is the general outline of our meetings, but it is impossible for me to give you an idea of the friendly repartee and the charming *bon mots* which, mingled with our more serious work, have made our circle such a delightful gathering and such a bond of fellowship in the neighborhood.

MISS ELIZABETH M. FELL.

#### WASHINGTON, D. C.

Wesley Memorial Circle, although named for the church in which it originated, is not restricted to that church for its membership, which might almost be described as non-sectarian. It has in its total of thirteen active members a band of energetic, painstaking workers, some of whom are old Chautauqua graduates who are helping weaker members up the rugged road to victory which they have already attained. In this circle are members of the Classes of 1901, 1902, 1903, and 1904. A very good attendance is maintained, the meeting night being Tuesday of each week, one and one-half hours being consumed in actual work. The method pursued is the appointment of the lesson by the president and of a quiz-master to prepare questions for the following meeting, changing the persons each week, and thus keeping all up to a feeling of personal interest in the work. Our president is Miss Esther Woodward, and the secretary, Mr. Fred. McKay, both of the Class of 1902.

Yours very sincerely,

A. F. TENNILLE, Class of 1904.

#### FAIRBURY, ILLINOIS.

Fairbury, Illinois, cheerily reports the C. L. S. C. in the most prosperous and progressive condition. Sixteen is the membership limit, and is fully occupied by active members. The ladies were much interested in the review of "The French Revolution," and appreciate the standard value of the "World Politics of Today." But the real enthusiasm in the work belongs justly to the study of the history of Greece and the ancient myths and legends of Greek literature.

Everything in the circle is satisfactory, and some of the members are eagerly anticipating the next year's course. They are fortunate in having a very efficient president who is in hearty sympathy with the work, and as leader brings out all that is of interest, inspiring every one with her own promptness and careful preparation. Genuine coöperation and special work for each member has proved to be the secret of their success.

#### MANCHESTER, IOWA.

I wish to report through THE CHAUTAUQUAN that Manchester Franklin C. L. S. C. is doing finely under the leadership of Mrs. F. F. Cory. We have ten new members for 1904, the largest number enrolled for one class in several years. Another class has been formed reporting six new members, so you see that the interest in this great work is still advancing here. With graduates and undergraduates, Franklin Circle enrolls about thirty.

MRS. C. J. FRIEND, Secretary.

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## BOOKS RECEIVED.

### THE MACMILLAN CO., NEW YORK.

- The Men Who Made the Nation. An Outline of United States History from 1760 to 1865. By Edwin Erle Sparks, Ph. D. Illustrated.  $5\frac{1}{2} \times 7\frac{1}{2}$ . \$2.00.
- The Story of Assisi. By Lina Duff Gordon. Illustrated by Nelly Erichsen and M. Helen James.  $4\frac{1}{2} \times 7$ . \$1.50.
- The Elements of Astronomy. By Sir Robert Ball, LL. D., F. R. S.  $4\frac{1}{2} \times 7$ . .80.
- Nicomede Tragedie par Pierre Corneille. 1651. Edited and Annotated by James A. Harrison.  $4\frac{1}{2} \times 7$ . .60.
- Sesame and Lilies and The King of the Golden River. By John Ruskin. Edited with Notes and Introduction by Herbert Bates.  $4\frac{1}{2} \times 5\frac{1}{2}$ . .25.
- A Treasury of Irish Poetry. In the English Tongue. Edited by Stopford A. Brooke and T. W. Rolleston.  $5\frac{1}{2} \times 8$ .
- American History Told by Contemporaries. Volume III. National Expansion. 1783-1845. Edited by Albert Bushnell Hart.  $5\frac{1}{2} \times 8$ . \$2.00.
- The Romance of the Earth. By A. W. Bickerton.  $5 \times 7\frac{1}{2}$ . .80.
- The Child Life Primer. By Etta Austin Blaisdell and Mary Francis Blaisdell.  $6 \times 7\frac{1}{2}$ . .25.

### GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE, WASHINGTON.

- Report of the Census of Cuba, 1899, Lt.-Col. J. P. Sanger, Inspector-General, Director. Henry Gannett, Walter F. Willcox, Statistical Experts.  $6 \times 9\frac{1}{2}$ .
- Bulletin of the Department of Labor. No. 31—November, 1900.
- Report of the Librarian of Congress for the Fiscal Year ending June 30, 1900.  $6 \times 9\frac{1}{2}$ .
- List of Books (with references to periodicals) Relating to the Theory of Colonization, Government of Dependencies, Protectorates, and Related Topics. By A. P. C. Griffin, Chief, Division of Bibliography. Second Edition, with Additions.  $5\frac{1}{2} \times 9\frac{1}{2}$ .
- Seventeenth Annual Report of the Bureau of American Ethnology to the Secretary of the Smithsonian Institution. 1895-96. By J. W. Powell, Director. Part 2.  $8 \times 11\frac{1}{2}$ .

### HOUGHTON, MIFFLIN & CO., BOSTON.

- Giles Corey of the Salem Farms. (Riverside Literature Series.) By Henry W. Longfellow. With introductory note and stage directions.  $4\frac{1}{2} \times 7$ . .15.
- Murillo. (The Riverside Art Series.) A collection of fifteen pictures and a portrait of the painter, with introduction and interpretation. By Estelle M. Hurl.  $5\frac{1}{2} \times 8\frac{1}{2}$ . .40.
- A Century of American Diplomacy. Being a Brief Review of the Foreign Relations of the United States. 1776-1876. By John W. Foster.  $6 \times 9$ .

### D. APPLETON & CO., NEW YORK.

- David Harum. A Story of American Life. By Edward Noyes Westcott. Illustrated by B. West Clinedinst, with a few text drawings by C. D. Farrand.  $5\frac{1}{2} \times 7\frac{1}{2}$ . \$2.00.
- The International Geography. By Seventy Authors. With 448 Illustrations. Edited by Hugh Robert Mill, D. Sc.  $6 \times 8\frac{1}{2}$ .
- A History of Chinese Literature. By Herbert A. Giles, M. A., LL. D. (Aberd.)  $5\frac{1}{2} \times 7\frac{1}{2}$ . \$1.50.

### D. C. HEATH & CO., BOSTON.

- Balzac's Cinq Scènes de la Comédie Humaine. (Heath's Modern Language Series.) Selected and Edited with introduction and notes by Benjamin W. Wells, Ph. D.  $4\frac{1}{2} \times 6\frac{1}{2}$ . .40.
- Schiller's Das Lied von der Glocke. (Heath's Modern

Language Series.) With Introduction, Notes and Vocabulary by W. A. Chamberlin.  $4\frac{1}{2} \times 6\frac{1}{2}$ . .20.

### THE METHODIST MAGAZINE PUBLISHING CO., ST. LOUIS.

- The Illustrated History of Methodism. The Story of the Origin and Progress of the Methodist Church, from its Foundation by John Wesley to the Present Day. Written in popular style and illustrated by more than one thousand portraits and views of persons and places. By Rev. James W. Lee, D. D., Rev. Naphtali Luccock, D. D., and James Main Dixon, M. A.  $7\frac{1}{2} \times 10\frac{1}{2}$ .

### THE ABBEY PRESS, NEW YORK.

- Through Stress and Storm. By Gregory Brooke.  $5\frac{1}{2} \times 8$ . \$1.00.
- Sweetbrier. By L. M. Elahemus.  $5\frac{1}{2} \times 8$ . \$1.00.
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### THOMAS Y. CROWELL & CO., NEW YORK.

- The Story of Douglas. By Sarah Knowles Bolton. Pamphlet.
- Elizabeth Barrett Browning's Complete Works. Edited by Charlotte Porter and Helen A. Clarke. 6 vols., 18mo, cloth, gilt top, in cloth box. Per set, \$4.50. Sold only in sets.

### THE BOWEN-MERRILL CO., INDIANAPOLIS.

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### THE ORVILLE BREWER PUBLISHING CO., CHICAGO.

- Enoch Arden. By Alfred Tennyson. (Students' Series of Four Penny Classics.) Pamphlet.
- Brewers' Collection of National Songs and Hymns. (Students' Series of Four Penny Classics.) Pamphlet.

### THE ROSARY PRESS, SOMERSET, OHIO.

- Life of our Lord and Savior Jesus Christ. By Rev. J. Puiseux, Honorary Canon and Former Student of the Carmelite School. Translated from the French by Roderick A. McEachen, A. B.  $5\frac{1}{2} \times 7\frac{1}{2}$ .

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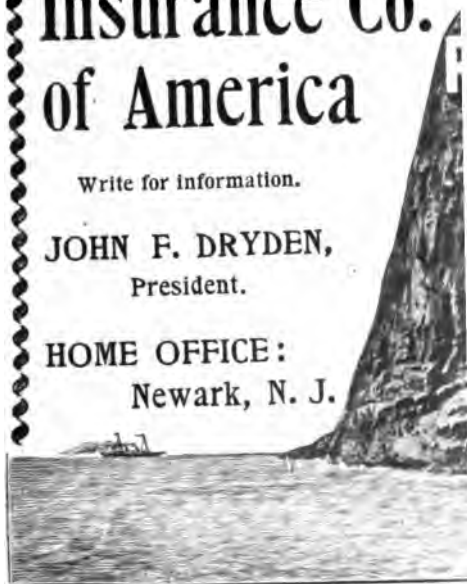
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THE KING-RICHARDSON CO., SPRINGFIELD, MASS.

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HENRY HOLT & CO., NEW YORK.

A Short History of French Literature. By L. E. Kas-  
tner, B. A. (Camb.) and H. G. Atkins, M. A. (Lond.),  
B. A. (Camb.) 5½ x 7½.

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Instruction for Chinese Women and Girls. By Lady  
Tsoo. Translated from the Chinese by Mrs. S. L.  
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THE INTERNATIONAL MONTHLY, BURLINGTON, VT.

The Expansion of Russia. Problems of the East and  
Problems of the Far East. By Alfred Rambaud.  
5½ x 7½.

OXFORD UNIVERSITY PRESS, NEW YORK.

The Teachers' Commentary on the Gospel According to  
St. Matthew. By F. N. Peloubet, D. D. 6 x 8½.  
\$1.25.

DODD, MEAD & CO., NEW YORK.

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5 x 7½.

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